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Art. I. *An Account of an Embassy to the Court of the Teshoo (Tisu) Lama in Tibet:* containing a Narrative of a Journey through Budtan, and Part of Tibet; by Captain Samuel Turner. To which are added, Views taken on the Spot, by Lieut. Samuel Davis; and Observations botanical, mineralogical, and medical, by Mr. Robert Saunders. 4to. pp. 500. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol. 1800.

In the year 1772, the Rajah of Budtan, descending from the lofty mountains which constitute his domains, over-ran with little opposition the district of Cûs-behar, a tributary dependence on the Suba of Bengal. The English government detached a military force, which repelled the invaders; and was preparing to carry its arms into the Budtan territory, when, at the intercession of the Tisu Lama, a peace was concluded with the Rajah, and the former boundaries were restored. Mr. Hastings judged the opportunity favourable for the establishment of a commercial intercourse between the inhabitants of Bengal and their northern neighbours; and for ascertaining the actual state of countries hitherto unexplored by Europeans; excepting where they had been marked by the wandering footsteps of the Romish missionaries, whose habits and views seldom accredited the veracity of their narratives. Mr. Bogle was accordingly deputed on an embassy to the Tisu Lama; he reached Deseripghè in October 1774; and after having resided there and at Tisulumbu till March 1775, he returned to Bengal: but his death, soon after his return, deprived the world of the information which he had acquired during his residence in Tibet.

Among the tribes which constitute the religious votaries of the Lamas (Pontiffs) of Tibet, are numbered the Manchu Tartars, whose chiefs fill the throne of China. When the late Emperor, Kienlong, had almost attained his seventieth year, the Tisu Lama was earnestly solicited to honour that anniversary with his presence. Accordingly, the Lama began his journey from

Tisulumbu in July 1779; in 46 days, he reached Duchu, seated on the banks of a river of the same name; 21 days more brought him to Thuctaring; 19 days afterward, he reached Cumbu, a populous city, where stands, near a small river, a large and famous Putala, or temple of public worship (Buddhala, the mansion of Buddha). Here the snow prevented his farther progress, and four months elapsed before he resumed his journey. Seven days from Cumbu, lay Tumdatolu, in the province of Alasia; and in nine more the Lama arrived at Nisar, a very large city. Seventy days more, during which several considerable places are mentioned as lying in the route, brought him to Singding, whither the Emperor had repaired to receive him; and, after having loaded with presents the venerable head of the faith, he conducted him in great state to a magnificent mansion allotted for his reception in the metropolis, Pechin. His journey occupied a period of twelve months; and the roads were crowded with votaries, who prostrated themselves and their offerings at the feet of Tisu Lama.—About a month after his arrival in the capital of China, he was seized with the small-pox, which terminated his days in July 1780, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the Chinese physicians, and the despair of their sovereign. His character yet stands in the highest estimation with his subjects; and by Mr. Bogle he was represented as humane, benevolent, and comparatively well informed. A temple of pure gold, large enough to contain the coffin, was prepared by the Emperor's orders; which, with his remains, was conveyed to Tisulumbu, where they still attract the devotion of the Tartar tribes.

An account of these events had scarcely reached Calcutta, before it was succeeded by intelligence of the re-appearance of the Lama in Tibet: 'The soul of the late Lama, according to the doctrines of their faith, having passed into, and animated the body of an infant, who, on the discovery of his identity, by such testimonies as their religion prescribes, was acknowleged and proclaimed by the same title and appellation as his predecessor.' Governor Hastings, on the receipt of these accounts, proposed to the Board to send a second deputation to Tibet; and Captain Turner was accordingly nominated for this service in January 1783.

From the district of Cusbehar to the foot of the Budtan mountains, extends a plain, 'about 30 miles in breadth, choked, rather than clothed, with the most luxuriant vegetation. The exhalations necessarily arising from the multitude of springs, which the vicinity of the mountains produces, are collected and confined by almost impervious woods, and generate an atmosphere, through which no traveller ever passed with impunity.'

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Situated near the extremity of this plain, lay Chichacatta, which our travellers reached on the 11th May 1783. Eight miles farther, began the assemblage of mountains which constitute the territory of Budtan, distinguished by the general appellation of Tangustan, and giving the name of Tangun to a breed of horses found only there. 'They are distinguished in colour by a general tendency to piebald; about 13 hands in height, short bodies, clean limbed, and, though deep in the chest, yet extremely active.'—After having commenced the ascent of the mountains, the first place which presents itself is Buxidwar, consisting of ten or twelve houses, placed on a table of levelled rock, surrounded on three sides by lofty mountains, and open only to the south, which affords a narrow prospect of Bengal. Here the common beverage of the Budtias was presented; Chong, a slightly acid and spirituous liquor, extemporaneously prepared by the infusion of a mass of grain in a state of fermentation; and Arra, an ardent spirit obtained from Chong by distillation. Already, the vegetable productions of Bengal required cultivation; and the appearance of raspberry bushes indicated a change of climate.—Continuing their ascent, surrounded by lofty mountains, covered to their summits with trees clothed in moss, the travellers reached Gygugu, 12 miles from Buxidwar; it consisted of five or six houses, supported on bambu props. Thirteen miles from Gygugu, and in a still more elevated situation, is Murichom, consisting of about 20 houses, built of stone, with clay as a cement; raspberries, strawberries, peaches, and oranges, were the spontaneous productions of the hills; and that species of cinnamon, the leaves of which, under the denomination of Tizpat, are used throughout Hindustan for culinary purposes. Here the travellers fell in with the Tehin-chu, foaming at the bottom of high mountains, which frequently alter its course; and sometimes rushing over stupendous precipices. Their route retraced its course as far as the capital of Budtan.

Pursuing their ascent, they crossed a bridge composed of chains, which extended over the Tehinchu, and reached Chuca, 18 miles distant from Murichom. 'On the five chains that support the platform, are placed several layers of strong coarse mats of bambu, loosely put down, so as to play with the swing of the bridge; and a fence on each side, of the same materials, contributes to the security of the passenger.' The castle of Chuca, a large square building on elevated ground, afforded them a lodging for the evening. From Chuca, the country opens, and presents to view many well cultivated fields and distant villages. Punuga lies ten miles distant: the mountains which environ it are covered with pine and fir; and there

is not a plant to be seen that is not of European growth. Much of the rock in the neighbourhood consists of limestone.—The castle of Chupea is about half way up a mountain, in a bleak but beautifully romantic situation:—a neighbouring mountain was covered with snow on the 29th May, and the thermometer at noon stood at 57°. Eleven miles farther, the castle of Paugah, a square stone tower, stands on the side of a rocky eminence, which abundantly supplies it with ammunition.—The road to the village of Nomnu, eight miles farther, led by the river along the sides of the mountains; over which, hermitages and villages were scattered, with portions of cultivated ground in their vicinity. An orchard in the neighbourhood yielded walnuts, apples, peaches, pears, apricots, and barberries.

As the embassy approached the capital, the country became more populous and better cultivated; the Tehinchu ran with less rapidity, watering a most beautiful valley, in which not a spot of land was unemployed. Wangoca lay ten miles from Nomnu, and beyond it our travellers entered the vale of Tasisudon, the residence of the Budtan Rajah. They were conducted to a house to the northward of the palace, and at no great distance from it, situated on an eminence high above the river, which runs on the other side of a road that winds round the base of a hill.

The 3d of June was fixed for receiving the English ambassador. Capt. T. says:

'The officers accompanied us through sevesal passages, and up a number of lofty ladders, which connect the different floors, till at length we arrived at the elevated station occupied by the Rajah, near the summit of the citadel. After a short pause upon the landing place, the door was thrown open, and we were ushered into a small but well proportioned room, having on the west side an arched balcony with sliding curtains, being the only aperture for the admission of light, immediately opposite to the door by which we entered, and before which a skreen projected nearly one third of the breadth of the room. The remaining space on the wall, beyond the skreen, was decorated with portraits, wrought in silk, of some champions of their faith, as stiff and formal as any heroes that ever appeared in tapestry. The walls of the room were coloured with blue, and the arches of the balcony, pillars, doors, &c. were painted with vermilion, and ornamented with gilding. The Rajah was habited in a deep garnet-coloured cloth, and sat cross-legged upon a pile of cushions, in the remote corner of the room, with the balcony upon his right hand; upon his left stood a cabinet of diminutive idols, and a variety of consecrated trinkets; close upon his right was placed an escrutoire, for the deposit of papers, required to be at hand; and before him was a small painted bench, to place his tea cup on, and answering all the other purposes of a table. We each advanced, presenting one after the other, a white silk scarf, or long narrow piece of pelong, fringed at

at both ends (as is the custom in these countries) to the Rajah, who, keeping his seat all the time, took them in his hand, and passed them to his attendant.'

Before the conclusion of the visit, tea was produced. 'We found,' says the author, 'this liquor extremely unlike what we had been used to drink under the same name; it was a compound of water, flour, butter, salt, and bohea tea, with some other astringent articles, all boiled, beat up, and intimately blended together.' The Rajah took frequent occasion of conversing with the travellers, whom he treated with much urbanity. He invited them to dine with him; "my food, (said he,) consists of the simplest articles; grain, roots, and fruits. I never eat of any thing that has had breath; for so I should be the indirect cause of putting an end to the existence of animal life, which by our religion is strictly forbidden." We presume that this prohibition only extends to the priesthood; possibly only to the supreme pontiffs; for we find meat, both dressed and raw, every where eaten in Budtan and Tibet. The Rajah's sentiments breathed a spirit of humanity highly honourable to their religious faith. "Bees, (he said,) by my direction, are never disturbed: their labour is employed for the benefit of the community, in laying up a stock, which serves to rear their young, and as a resource when they cease to find food abroad. Were I, availing myself of superior power, to deprive them of this store, accumulated for their future support, how could I expect to enjoy unmolested, that of which I am myself possessed?" The Gylongs or priests are enjoined celibacy: fifteen hundred of them lodged in the palace, and no female was allowed to sleep within the walls.

'The Budteas have invariably black hair, which it is their fashion to cut close to the head. The eye is a very remarkable feature of the face: small, black, with long pointed corners, as though stretched and extended by artificial means. Their eye-lashes are so thin as to be scarcely perceptible; and the eyebrow is but lightly shaded. Below the eyes, is the broadest part of the face, which is rather flat, and narrows from the cheekbones to the chin; a character of countenance appearing first to take its rise amongst the Tartar tribes, but is by far more strongly marked in the Chinese. Their skins are remarkably smooth, and most of them arrive at a very advanced age, before they can boast even the earliest rudiments of a beard.'

Speaking of the Gylongs, 'I know not, (says the author,) where *in the world* an equal number of men would be met with, so straight, so well-proportioned, and so stout. I never beheld a more florid picture of health than was exhibited in the complexion of the mountaineers; the women in particular, with their jet black hair, and clear, brisk, black eyes, had a ruddi-

ness which the most florid English rustic would in vain attempt to rival.'

A narrow slip of ground, three or four miles in length, and in its widest part not exceeding one mile in breadth, was chosen for the situation of the capital. There is no town, nor indeed any house, except that allotted for the ambassador, within a mile of the palace: but a few clusters of houses are distributed in different parts among the fields.

'The castle or palace of Tasisudon stands near the centre of the valley, and is a building of a quadrangular form. The length of the front exceeds that of the sides by one third: the walls are lofty, and as I conjecture upwards of 30 feet high, and they are sloped a little from the foundation to the top: above the middle space, is a row of projecting balconies, to each of which are curtains made of black hair, which are always drawn at night: below, the walls are pierced with very small windows. Passing through a spacious gateway, we came opposite to the central square building, which I must call the citadel: and this is the habitation of the Rajah. It is a very lofty building, being no less than seven stories high, each from 15 to 18 feet; it is covered over with a roof of a low pitch, composed of fir timbers, sheathed with boards of deal, which project on each side a great way beyond the walls; from the centre, there rises a square piece of masonry, which supports a canopy of copper richly gilt; and this is supposed to be immediately over the great idol, Mahamuni (the great anchoret, Buddha). Lam Rimbocha, the present Diva Rajah (celestial king, a title by which the Rajahs of Budtan are distinguished,) lives upon the fourth floor from the ground; above that there are two other stories; and the seventh ladder leads to the temple of Mahamuni, which is covered with the gilded canopy.'

Near to every religious edifice, a small square temple containing an image is seen, placed like a centinel on the road side. They have one small doorway, which always remains closed; and travellers uncover their heads, and dismount from their horses, as they pass. The mystic words "Oom mauni païmi oom" are frequently engraven on rocks, in large and deep characters; and sometimes Captain Turner saw them on the sides of hills, yet could never obtain any satisfactory explanation of them. The word which begins and ends this formula is the sacred monosyllable composed of the initials of the Hindu trinity; the two intermediate words have probably been imperfectly stated by the author, who had no acquaintance with the language. With a very slight mutation of letters, the sentence may either signify, "I adore the feet of the Muni (Buddha);" or "I am absorbed in contemplating (the mystic syllable) oom."

During Captain Turner's stay, a bloodless insurrection shook the throne of Budtan: but it was quelled by exertions almost

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as feeble as those which supported it. 'Every kind of discipline and order is totally disregarded in their mode of warfare; stratagem is more practised than open assault: they engage in general as marksmen, and wait their opportunity to fire unobserved. Both parties are so careful to conceal themselves, that seldom any thing is visible but the top of a tufted helmet, or the end of a bow.' Yet poisoned arrows are in the list of their weapons: but the effect of this vegetable poison was less fatal than their terror represented it.

'A few fruits are found here in great perfection; their oranges are exquisite, their peaches and apricots very good; so also is the pomegranate; walnuts cannot possibly be better. Yet here Nature does every thing; it remains only for them to extend their hands, and partake of what she offers. I have always observed their corn fields very neatly dressed; but in this the men can claim but little merit, for by far the greatest labour falls upon the fair sex; they plant, they weed, and to them, eventually, the task falls, of applying the sickle and the flail.'

Among other co-incidences with the Hindus, may be mentioned the veneration which the Budteas profess for the lotus; (*nymphea nilotica*;) for monkeys; and the celebration of the Dasohera and Divali, in honour of the goddesses Durga and Cali. The order of Gylongs is very numerous, notwithstanding the severity of the discipline; since every family consisting of more than four boys is obliged to contribute one of them to this order. The officers of state being usually selected from this number, it is encouraged by ambition as well as by fanaticism. 'In fact, the higher ranks of men, entirely engrossed by political or ecclesiastical duties, leave to the husbandman and labourer, to those who till the fields and live by their industry, the exclusive charge of propagating the species.'

On the 8th of September 1783, the travellers left Tasisudon, after a residence of three months, to prosecute their journey to the court of Tisu Lama. Lofty mountains still impeded their progress; and at Paibesa, they appeared as if fashioned into hanging gardens. Paro is 21 miles from Tasisudon, and the seat of a viceroy; it stands in a valley larger than that of the capital, and intersected by the Pa-chu; it boasts the only market in Budtan, and is famous for the manufacture of gods and forging of arms. Ducajung, nine miles farther, is a fortress built on the crown of a low rocky hill. Eleven miles beyond it, is Sana, the last village in Budtan, consisting of ten houses; and here the thermometer, which at Tasisudon never was lower than 60°, fell to 46°. The Pachu rolled its waters at the foot of the mountains; and on the opposite bank grazed a herd of chowry tailed cattle, called "yac" by the Tartars.

The only essential difference between the yac and an English bull consists in the thick coat of long hair, which covers the former. The tail is composed of a prodigious quantity of long flowing glossy hair, and is so abundantly well furnished that not a joint of it is perceptible: but it has much the appearance of a large cluster of hair set artificially on. These animals are universally esteemed throughout the east. The chain of mountains situated between the latitudes of 27° and 28°, which divides Tibet from Budtan, and of which the summits are commonly covered with snow, forms their favorite haunt. They are extremely useful as beasts of burden, and the cows yield an abundant quantity of rich milk.

'Bridges, in a country composed of mountains, and abounding with torrents, must necessarily be very frequent: the traveller has commonly some one to pass on every day's journey. They are of different constructions, generally of timber; and if the width of the river will admit, laid horizontally from rock to rock. Over broader streams, a triple or quadruple row of timbers, one row projecting over the other and inserted into the rock, sustain two sloping sides, which are united by an horizontal platform, of nearly equal length: thus the centre is, of course, raised very much above the current, and the whole bridge forms the figure nearly of three sides of an octagon. The widest river in Budtan has an iron bridge, consisting of a number of iron chains, supporting a matted platform.'

On the summit of Sumunang, in lat. 28°, a long row of little inscribed flags, fixed in rude heaps of stones, was fluttering in the wind; they marked the boundaries of Budtan and Tibet.

'If Budtan, compared with Bengal, exhibits a vast contrast of country and climate, there is no nearer analogy between Tibet and Budtan.

'Budtan presents to the view, nothing but the most mis-shapen irregularities; mountains covered with eternal verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees. Almost every favourable aspect of them, coated with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared and adapted to cultivation, by being shelved into horizontal beds; not a slope, nor narrow slip of land between the ridges, lies unimproved. There is scarcely a mountain, whose base is not washed by some rapid torrent, and many of the loftiest, bear populous villages, amidst orchards, and other plantations, on their summits and on their sides. It combines, in its extent, the most extravagant traits of rude nature and laborious art.

'Tibet, on the other hand, strikes a traveller, at first sight, as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and appears to be in a great measure incapable of culture. It exhibits only low rocky hills, without any visible vegetation; or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect, promising full as little as they produce. Its climate is cold and bleak in the extreme; from the severe effects of which, the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered valleys,

valleys, and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. Yet perhaps Providence, in its impartial distribution of blessings, has bestowed on each country a tolerably equal share. The advantages that one possesses in fertility, and in the richness of its forests and its fruits, are amply counterbalanced in the other by its multitudinous flocks, and invaluable mines. As one seems to possess the pabulum of vegetable, in the other we find a superabundance of animal life. The variety and quantity of wild fowl, game, and beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds, in Tibet, are astonishing. In Budtan, except domestic creatures, nothing of the sort is to be seen. I recollect meeting with no wild animal except the monkey, in all my travels; and of game, I saw only a few pheasants once near Chuca.

The castle of Phari stood in a valley at the foot of Sumunang; with an abundance of musk deer in the vicinity. This animal is observed to delight in the most intense cold, and is always found in places bordering on snow. Two long curved tusks proceed from the upper jaw, and are directed downward. The deer are about the height of a moderately sized hog, which they resemble much in the figure of the body. The greatest singularity in them is the sort of hair with which they are covered, and which grows erect all over the body; partaking less of the nature of hair than of feathers; or rather resembling the porcupine's quill. The musk is a secretion formed in a little bag, or tumor, resembling a wen, situated at the navel; and it is found only in the male.

A ridge of mountains, covered with snow during the whole year, surrounded the travellers after they left Phari.—This they concluded to be the greatest altitude of this part of Tibet, perhaps of all Asia, from the rivers on the south side flowing in a southerly direction towards Bengal; while those which originate in the northern side run towards Tisulumbu, and augment the volume of the Brahmaputro.—Here our travellers saw great numbers of wild horses, or Gurcas.

'They were very shy, and kept so far aloof, that we could not well distinguish their marks and make; but with a glass I could discern long ears, like those of an ass, or mule, and a slender tail with little hair upon it, reaching about as low as the hock. The ears, neck, body, and tail were of one colour, approaching nearly to what we term a fawn colour; the face, belly, and legs were lighter, indeed almost white. They are said to be extremely fleet; and are never taken alive to be rendered serviceable, or domesticated: the young indeed are sometimes caught, but they soon pine away and die.'

The small village of Chalu lay 34 miles from Phari; the intermediate country being almost a desert, swept by impetuous winds, which in summer involve the traveller in clouds of dust, and in winter produce a degree of cold capable of splitting the heads of animals which are exposed to it, during the night.

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The travellers passed a lake fed by springs containing a portion of alum with selenitic earth; the banks were whitened with an incrustation of alkaline salt, used by the natives for the purposes of potash: the cyrus, solan geese, ducks, pintadoes, cranes, and gulls, sported on the surface of the lake.

Shuhu, 26 miles from Chalu, exhibited the first trees which Captain Turner observed in Tibet. Beyond this place, the country improved. The valley of Jansu has the appearance of having once been a lake; and tradition affirms that the whole land of Tibet was covered with waters, till a native of Gya in Hindustan opened a passage for them to the sea, through Bengal. The sectaries of Buddha or Foe believe him to have been incarnated at Gya.—Tehuccu is situated in the vale, two miles from the castle of Jansu, and 12 from Shuhu; the environs are populous, and a manufacture of coarse woollen cloth supplies the Tibetians with their winter raiment. Ducaï lay 16 miles farther; Tsondu, 23 miles from Ducaï; and Tisulumbu, which terminates this journey, is 10 miles from Tsondu.

'If the magnificence of Tisulumbu (says Captain T.) was to be increased by any external cause, none could more superbly have adorned its numerous gilded canopies, and turrets, than the sun rising in full splendor directly opposite. We ascended by a narrow street through the middle of the monastery, and were conducted to very splendid apartments, bright with gay colours, and situated in the centre of the palace, amidst a profusion of gorgeous finery. At the instant of our entrance, we heard the deep tone of many sonorous instruments, which were summoning the religious to their morning orisons.'

The reception of the English Ambassador at Tisulumbu was marked by much courtesy. The infant Lama was still in his father's house: but the Regent assured Captain Turner that the favourable sentiments which he had entertained of the English, in his former state of existence, would not fail to revive in this present one, with redoubled efficacy. The removal of the Lama to the monastery of Terpaling was attended with much pomp. The Emperor of China had commanded a military officer of high rank, with a large detachment of troops, to attend and escort the infant Lama; who was conveyed on a throne carried by Chinese. These people, however, are rather feared than loved by the natives of Tibet, by whom they are considered as a gross and impure race of men.

The mausoleum of the late Lama is a structure of uncommon magnificence.

'Three sides of a court yard, which was paved, were surrounded with a colonnade, for the accommodation of pilgrims; upon its walls were painted many emblematical figures, of gigantic proportions. The

The two principal ones, of enormous size, depicted with hideous countenances, and coloured with blue and scarlet, represented incarnations of Cali *. The pillars were painted with vermilion, and ornamented with gilding, and upon the pediment which they supported, was introduced the Imperial figure of the Chinese dragon. In the centre of the colonnade was a large gate, which opened to a principal avenue of the monastery. Immediately opposite to this gate, stood the portico of the mausoleum, on the top of which, within a low railing, was placed a device, resembling a coat of arms. Under the portico, sat a priest, who, with others, was appointed to pray on that spot, and to keep alive the sacred fire that burns before the shrine. Two ponderous doors, painted with vermilion, and embossed with huge gilded knobs, made the whole fabric ring, as their pivots grated within their sockets, and their massy sides came with strong concussion against the walls. It now appeared, that the building we had hitherto seen, served only as a case, to cover a most beautiful pyramid placed within it. At the base of this pyramid, the body of the late Lama was deposited in the coffin of pure gold, made by command of the Emperor of China, upon the decease of the Lama at his court, and in which the body was conveyed with the utmost solemnity and state, from Pechin, through the provinces of China and Tibet to Tisulumbu. It is the custom in Tibet, to preserve entire the mortal remains of their sovereign Lamas only; every other corpse is either consumed by fire, or given to be the promiscuous food of beasts and birds of prey. The late Tisu Lama is represented in an effigy of gold, which crowns the pyramid, and is placed within the concave of a large shell, radiated alternately with white and red, the edges being scolloped, and projecting so far as to form a canopy, that incloses within its hollow, the whole body of the figure. The sides of the pyramid were encased with plates of solid silver. On each step that composed the structure, which gradually diminished in breadth and depth, from the base to the vertex, were arranged all sorts of rarities, and articles of curious workmanship, which had been presented at different times as offerings to the late Lama. On the right side of the pyramid was another image of the late Lama, as large as life, of solid silver, gilt. Fruits, flowers, with various kinds of corn and oil were placed on the altar, and the air was perfumed by a multitude of odoriferous tapers. Upon the floor and on all sides, were high piles of sacred books.

'The shell or covering of the pyramid, which constitutes the exterior of the mausoleum, is a structure, when viewed at some distance, of considerable magnitude and beauty. The pillar, scolloped arch, and pediment of Asia, or Hindustan, prevail in the interior apartments; the external decorations are of Chinese or Tartar origin, similar to those of the watch tower, or temple of the former; the tented canopy and imperial dragon. In the centre of the front, within a tablet, the mystic sentence, Oom mauni païmi oom, is inscribed, in large golden characters. But the most showy part of this structure, which crowns the whole, is a spacious tented canopy, richly gilt, which is supposed

* Cali is a Hindu goddess, and corresponds with the Grecian Hecate.

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to stand immediately over the remains of the Lama, and the centre of the pyramid; it overshadows the summit of the building, from the body of which it is elevated by its own particular support, forming to the whole an elegant and graceful finish. The edges of the canopy swell out in a bold and graceful sweep. The ridge is decorated with the Chinese dragon, whose convolutions fill up all that space; and round the canopy are hung a prodigious number of small bells, which make an inconceivable noise, with every breeze that blows.'

In his conversations with the Regent and Supun Chumbu, Captain Turner met with a degree of general knowlege, of the position even of distant countries, which he had not expected to find.'—Bengal is endeared to the Tibetians by many considerations. The regeneration of their Lama is said to have taken place, in times of remote antiquity, near the site of the antient and ruined city of Gowr; and all those places held in veneration by the Hindus, as Gya, (the birth-place of Buddha,) Benares, Allahabad, Gangasagor, and Jaggernaut, are equally objects of superstitious zeal with a votary of the Tibet faith, who thinks himself blessed above his fellow disciples, if he can but perform a pilgrimage to these sacred spots.—A large party of Tartars arrived with offerings to the Lama, consisting of horses, furs, Bulgar hides, and skins of butter; their route back lay through Lassa, 12 days; from Lassa to Dâm, 10 days; and from Dâm to the banks of the Sullum, 30 days; which, at 20 miles a day, must be 1040 miles.—The author deemed his situation favorable for obtaining information respecting an antient nation, 'supposed to have once inhabited the borders of the Baïcal sea, in the interior of Tartary; and from which some persons conjecture the learning, arts, and sciences of India, and even of Europe, to have been originally derived. If such a nation ever existed, the remembrance of it seems now to be buried in the deepest oblivion.'

'The general belief, as I was repeatedly assured by the Regent, which prevails amongst them, is, that both the sciences and the arts had their origin in the holy city of Benares, which they have been taught to esteem as the source and centre both of learning and religion. The antient teachers of the faith which they profess, are said to have first proceeded from this sacred city, and after having advanced towards the east, over the empire of China, to have directed their course towards the kingdoms of Europe.'

In proof of the antiquity of their knowlege of letters, says Captain T., the Tibetians urged the similarity of their sacred character with the Sanscrit. Captain Turner means the Divanagari, for Sanscrit is not a character; if there be such a similarity, (for he has not exhibited an alphabet,) we should read the mystic sentence, which he calls "Oom mauni païmi oom," differently. If the letters resemble Divanagari, they present

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« Oom munèrchoronow durgomow." *The feet of the Muni* (Buddha) *are of difficult attainment.* The sacred character termed Uchen is quite as distinct from that of business and correspondence, called Umin, as the old Roman text is from the English round-hand.

' Egypt, (in their language, *Eunani,*) and the lions, (*singhi,*) were favorite topics of conversation with Supun Chumbu. From thence perhaps they have derived their veneration for the sovereign of brutes, which they evince by the distinguished place they assign him in their sacred architecture.' We apprehend that this passage involves an important misconception; since it is not Egypt, but Greece, which is universally termed Iunan (or Ionia) by the orientals: the *singh* or lion performs too important a part in Hindu mythology, to be unknown to the worshippers of Durga.

' Tisu-lumbu, or Lubrong, the seat of Tisu Lama, and the capital of that part of Tibet immediately subject to his authority, is situated in 29° 4′ 20″ north latitude, and 89° 7′ east longitude from Greenwich. It is a large monastery, consisting of three or four hundred houses, the habitations of the Gylongs, besides temples, the mausoleum, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff; in which is comprised also, the residence of the regent, and of all the subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock, and has a southern aspect. Its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat-roofed, and crowned with a parapet, rising considerably above the roof, composed of heath and brushwood, inserted between frames of timber, which form a ledge below, and are fashioned above into a cornice, capped with masonry.

' The plain of Tisulumbu, which is perfectly level, is encompassed by rocky hills on all sides. Its direction is north and south, and its extreme length about 15 miles; its southern extremity in breadth, may be about six miles. The rock upon the face of which the monastery is situated occupies nearly the whole width of the valley, leaving room only for a road, and the bed of the river Penom-chu, which runs through it, and at a small distance beyond, joins the Brahmaputro.'

This river, as well as the Ganges, as the author was informed, has its source in the lake Man-sorobor, a month's journey west from Tisulumbu. *Sorobor*, in Sanscrit, signifies a mighty pool.

Respecting the analogy and discrepancy of the religions of Tibet and Hindustan, the author offers little that is satisfactory. We have already mentioned several instances of agreement: but they differ in various important particulars; of which we shall enumerate a few. The Tibetians know no distinction of casts; they eat flesh, even raw; they do not burn

burn their dead; and their priests are enjoined celibacy. In these and many other respects, they differ *toto cœlo* from their southern neighbours.

The religion of this country is divided into two great sects; the first, termed *Gylucpa*, is established in Tibet, the priests of which are habited in yellow robes, with a conical cap of the same colour; the second, named *Samar*, is distinguished by red dresses, and is fixed in Budtan. Each of them has three Lamas at the head of their hierarchy; those of Tibet being the Dalai Lama, who resides at Lassa; the Tisu Lama; and Taranat Lama *, whose seat is Kharca, in the north. The Rajah of Budtan, and two other Lamas, preside over the Samar. Captain Turner observes that the principal difference consists in the Samar admitting of the marriage of the priests; yet he informed us that the Gylongs of Tasisudon observed celibacy.

'Great contentions formerly prevailed between the sects Gylucpa and Samar; and in antient times the latter is reported to have enjoyed the most extensive power. Kumbac (a region of north Tartary) acknowledged its doctrines, whilst those of the Gylucpa were settled in Kilmac. (Calmuc Tartars.) The monasteries of both were promiscuously settled over the face of the country, till at length the inhabitants of Kilmac, the Gylucpa, assembling together a mighty army, waged war against the sectaries of Kumbac, the Samar, and drove them from their possessions in various quarters, more particularly from the neighbourhood of Tisulumbu, where they were then fixed in great numbers, and where they finally established their own authority. The Gylucpa having thus displaced their opponents from their strongest post, where they had formed a large settlement, now razed it to the ground, and left not a habitation standing: but from the ruins arose the monastery of Tisulumbu. After its establishment, the superiority of Tisu Lama was firmly fixed, and the power of the Gylucpa soon attained its highest ascendancy, in consequence of the Emperor of China's having declared in its favor, and adopted for himself the distinction of the yellow hat. This completely turned the balance towards the sectaries of Gylucpa, while those of the Samar, no longer capable of maintaining their ground, were under a necessity of retiring to Budtan.'

The political object of the embassy, which was to engage the court of Tisulumbu to permit and facilitate a commercial intercourse between Tibet and Bengal, experienced little difficulty on the part of the regent; though the influence of the Chinese was manifestly hostile to free communication. On the 2d December, the author took his departure from the city, and

* The name of this Lama is Sanscrit, signifying *lord of the constellations;* and we suspect that most of the proper names are so, if their orthography could be ascertained. "*Otisu*" is *most sublime*, in Sanscrit; may not this be the real title of the chief Lama?

proceeded

proceeded to the monastery of Terpaling to pay his respects to the infant Lama, previously to his return to Bengal. Though the young Lama was only 18 months old, and unable to speak, it was hinted to the ambassador that it must not be inferred that he was incapable of understanding. Captain Turner says that he addressed him in a short speech respecting the object of his mission; and he adds: 'The little creature turned, looking stedfastly towards me, with the appearance of much attention while I spoke, and nodded with repeated but slow movements of the head, as though he understood and approved every word, but could not utter a reply.' His father and mother entertained the author for some days with much courtesy. Among other accomplishments, they excelled in music; and they mentioned that it was preserved in written characters, which Captain Turner is convinced must be the case from the impossibility of otherwise managing, in unison, the powerful band of instruments introduced to accompany their religious ceremonies. Copies of their sacred books have been multiplied in Tibet, by the art of printing, from a very remote age: they do not use moveable types for that purpose, but set forms.

'The practice of polyandry, (says Captain T.) if I may so call it, prevails universally in Tibet; and one female is seen to associate her fate and fortune with all the brothers of a family, without any restriction of age, or of numbers. 'The choice of a wife is the privilege of the elder brother; and singular as it may seem, I have been assured that a Tibetian wife is as jealous of her connubial rites, though thus joined to a numerous party of husbands, as the despot of an Indian seraglio is of the favors of his imprisoned fair.'

This extraordinary custom may have been intended, as Captain Turner thinks, to guard against the greatest of all evils, too numerous a population, in an unfertile country; the shocking consequences of which, he instances in the neighbouring country of China. 'It tends also to prevent domestic discords, arising from a division of family interests; and to concentrate all the spirit, and all the virtues inherent in illustrious blood.' Captain T. has not informed us whether the number of males born in Tibet exceeds that of females: but in a country covered with monasteries and nunneries, the intention of Nature is controuled by religious fanaticism. We must recollect, "*non eadem omnibus esse honesta atque turpia, sed omnia majorum institutis judicari.*"

'During three months (says the author) that I had passed in Tibet, I had not witnessed three cloudy days. The dryness of the soil, and scantiness of vegetation, contribute little towards charging the air with humidity. The atmosphere was clear even to brilliancy, and I had seen no fogs since the day I entered it. The thermometer at Tisulumbu during the month of October, was on an average, at

eight o'clock in the morning 38°; at noon 46°; and at six o'clock in the evening 42°. The dust was for a short time extremely troublesome, but it is the practice of the husbandman to cover the low lands in the vallies with water, on the approach of winter, which incases their surface, as it were, with a sheet of ice, and prevents their being stripped of the soil by violent winds; their course of cultivation is wheat, pease, and barley.'

From Terpaling, the author pursued his return to Bengal. On the snowy mountains of Sumunang, which bound Tibet on the south, the goats, which afford the materials for the manufacture of shawls, were feeding in large flocks on the thin dry herbage. 'Their colours were various; black, white, of a faint bluish tinge, and of a shade something lighter than a fawn. They have strait horns, and are of a lower stature than the smallest sheep in England. The light shawl wool clothes the animal next the skin: a coarse covering of long hair grows above this, and preserves the softness of the inferior coat.'

Budtan presented a milder climate and more genial soil; 'the Rajah's garden was adorned with groves, crowded with rich loads of the finest oranges, citrons, and pomegranates. The mango and peach tree had parted with their produce, but hoards of apples and of walnuts were opened for our gratification.' Traversing these mountainous regions, and the sickly tract at their feet, where goitres are as frequent and as fatal as at the bottom of the Alps, our travellers found themselves again in the East India Company's territories.—The reviewer may now say with the fly in the fable, "*J'ai tant fait que mes gens sont enfin dans la plaine!*"

The commerce, which the Bengal government wished to encourage, promised to answer their most sanguine expectation. Broad cloths, spiceries, precious stones, tobacco, indigo, and muslins, were exported by the Bengal merchants to Tisulumbu: the returns consisted of gold dust, musk, and tincal dug from the bed of a lake. Mines of gold, silver, cinnabar, copper, and lead, are said to be found in Tibet; and salt is procured in abundance from the same lake which yields the tincal. In 1785, a Hindu merchant was intrusted with dispatches for the Regent, by Mr. Hastings: on whose arrival at Tisulumbu, it was found that many merchants had already brought their commodities to market; and others followed before he left the place. The ceremony of inaugurating the young Lama had been performed with the utmost magnificence, in October 1784.—These flattering appearances, however, were of no long duration.

In the year 1792, a race of people inhabiting the mountains of Nepal, which are situated to the south of Tibet, to the west

of Budtan, and border on the northern frontier of Bengal, commenced hostilities against the states of Tibet. Their progress was extremely rapid; and the soldiers of the supreme pontiff of Tartary were as speedily disarmed as those who surrounded a deserted head of the catholic church. The young Lama and his courtiers sought their safety in flight, and Tisulumbu fell a prey to a handful of banditti. The valuables which had for ages been accumulating in that sanctuary were the principal object of the invaders; and, after having plundered the city, they withdrew to deposit the spoils within their fastnesses, in the Nepal mountains. This purpose having been accomplished, they re-assembled in force on the extensive plain of Tingri, midway between Nepal and Tisulumbu; where they determined to wait, and try their strength, in case the Tibetians should choose to give them battle: but a more formidable enemy was now advancing to the contest.

On the borders of Tartary, immediately contiguous to China, a large force was collected, by the Emperor's orders, to repel and to punish the invaders of the sacred territory; and on the plain of Tingri, the Nepalese suffered a total defeat. The Chinese army advanced to the frontiers of Nepal, and attacked the post of Coti, which held out a considerable time. After its reduction, the Nepalese, destitute of any immediate resource, were induced to solicit the interference of the British government; and Captain Kirkpatrick was the first of our nation who obtained admission into that country. The Chinese troops, however, pursued their fortune with uniform success; till their General at length listened to the submissive overtures of the Nepalese, and granted them a peace, on the conditions of an annual tribute to the empire, and the full restitution of all the spoils which they had carried away from the monastery of Tisulumbu. The suspicious temper of the Chinese led their commander to interpret the appearance of the English ambassador at Nepal, as a proof of our nation having afforded assistance to the invaders; and the similarity of dress and discipline between the Nepal soldiers, and the battalions in the company's service, strengthened this delusion; so that a line of posts is now established, which prohibit on every side all access to the Lama's dominions. From this period, says the author, is to be dated the interruption which has taken place in the regular intercourse between the Company's possessions, and the territory of the Lama.

The very agreeable and instructive work, to which we have so long called the attention of our readers, will amply requite the curiosity of those who may afford it a perusal. The undoubted veracity of the writer is accompanied by no common

talents for description; and the scenery and society with which he was conversant, during the short period of his mission, yield him ample scope for indulging those powers. In a second edition, we would recommend it to the author to recollect whether the rivers, which intersect the Sundribon, do not proceed from the Ganges before it joins the Brahmaputro; whether pine apples are not said to have been found in Assam by the very Commander who (as he states) brought them to Cus-behar; and whether the feast of Cali, vulgarly termed "*Cheragh-puja*," can possibly have any correspondence with the Mahommedan or Tibetian festivals which he specifies, either in time or object. Mistakes in these ~~important~~ trivial matters, however, detract nothing from the value of a performance which contains much and important information, relative to a country almost unknown to European nations.

Han.

ART. II. *Observations on the Seventh Form of Roman Government*; in a Letter to the Rev. Henry Kett, B. D. Author of History the Interpreter of Prophecy *. By a Layman. 8vo. 1s. Butterworth. 1800.

OF the seven-headed beast which was presented to St. John in vision, that apostle gives the following description; "And there are seven kings: five are fallen, and one is, and the other is not yet come; and when he cometh, he must continue a short space. And the beast that was, and is not, even he is the eighth, and is of the seven, and goeth into perdition." Rev. xvii. 10, 11. These seven kings, according to the most common mode of interpretation, adopted in the work to which these *Observations* refer, denote the forms of Roman government, viz. first, Kings; second, Consuls; third, Dictators; fourth, Decemvirs; fifth, Military Tribunes; sixth, Emperors; seventh, Gothic Kings, and Exarchs of Ravenna; eighth, Popes. Of these forms, five had fallen when St. John wrote; and the sixth, or Imperial form, was in actual existence. At what time it was succeeded by the seventh, and what was the precise nature of this seventh form, are the points to which our attention is directed in the pamphlet before us.

Although we are not induced absolutely to renounce the generally received opinion, by the author's objections, nor are satisfied with the hypothesis which he proposes, we are ready to allow that he has discussed the subject in a manner which claims notice; and he can have no occasion for recurring to the modest apology with which he closes this well-written

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* See Rev. for June last.

pamphlet.

pamphlet. Foreign as the subject may be to his usual studies, it has evidently occupied his thoughts; and in the prosecution of it, the industry of his research has been not less laudable than the sagacity of his judgment. We shall therefore first give a compendious abstract of his objections to the common interpretation, and then state his own hypothesis; submitting the whole to the decision of those of our readers who are accustomed to disquisitions of this nature.

The author observes that the Gothic kings, and the Exarchs of Ravenna, were two distinct *forms* of government, 'at least as different in their natures from each other, as any two which had preceded in the history of Rome;' and if they be considered as one form, because they agreed in one characteristic, namely, their subordination to the Emperor, he apprehends that, by the same kind of reasoning, every delegated government, which existed in Rome after the removal of the royal palace to Nicomedia, may be included under the same form: so that we shall thus be under the necessity of supposing that the sixth head, or Imperial government, was extinguished at so early a period as the reign of Dioclesian. If, on the other hand, it be allowed that the authority of the Emperor, in the western provinces, so far ceased on the resignation of Augustulus as to make the kingdom of Italy a new form of Roman government, this circumstance is not applicable to the Exarchs, who were the mere representatives or delegates of the Emperor. Besides, the Ostrogothic kingdom and the exarchate of Ravenna were fundamentally different in their constitutions; the former being an hereditary monarchy, though possibly subject to the Emperor, as feudal sovereign or liege lord; and the latter being altogether dependent on the Byzantine Court. According to this representation of them, they ought to have been considered as separate and distinct forms of government; and they should have been exhibited by different heads.

The author farther argues that, if each of the seven heads be intended to denote some form of Roman government, (that is, some form in which the city of Rome exercised dominion,) the reign of a foreigner, averse from the arts and unacquainted with the language of the Romans, and whose policy it was to perpetuate the separation of the Italians and Goths, could not with any propriety be considered as a form of Roman government. Rome, it is urged, was not the capital of the Ostrogothic kingdom; and if it be maintained that the sixth head continued to subsist while the seat of the Imperial government was at Nicomedia, or Constantinople, or Milan, or Ravenna, the author replies that Rome was subject to a foreign yoke;

and that no circumstances could render the government of a foreigner the government of Rome, but his making Rome the metropolis of his kingdom, and adopting the character of a Roman.

If it be allowed that the names of blasphemy, which were written on the heads of the beast, (See Rev. xiii. 1.) comprehended the seventh as well as the others; and if we suppose that these denote forms of government, under which Rome, in a state of idolatry, exercised dominion; we derive from this view of the case another reason for arguing that neither the kingdom of Italy nor the exarchate of Ravenna can be considered, individually or collectively, as the seventh head; since both the Ostrogothic kings and the Exarchs were christians.

Admitting the common opinion, that the deadly wound mentioned in Rev. xiii. 3. was inflicted by Odoacer, A. D. 476, the author infers that, if the seventh head commenced with the accession of Theodoric, the deadly wound was then healed, and we must look for all its dreadful effects in the usurpation of Odoacer:—but he argues, from the peaceful resignation of Augustulus, and from the just and moderate reign of the king of the Heruli, that this could not be the period in which the consequences of the wound were grievously felt:—whereas, if we look forwards to the close of the sixth century, or to the time of the exarchate, we shall perceive deplorable traces of the degradation and distress to which Rome was reduced. "Like Thebes, or Babylon, or Carthage, the name of Rome might have been erased from the earth, (says Gibbon,) if the *city* had not been animated by a vital principle, which again restored her to honour and dominion." This, according to our author, was the principle of idolatry; and, by the mighty influence of that sentiment, according to the sure word of prophecy, the deadly wound was healed. At the commencement of the seventh century, when image worship very commonly prevailed,

'Curiosity and superstition combined in rendering Rome a place of general resort; and while the concourse of strangers increased the opulence of her citizens, the influence of public opinion again raised her to pre-eminence in the scale of cities.'—'At this period of general fascination, therefore, we ought to look for the rise of the seventh form of Roman government; and history does not disappoint our expectations. The dominion exercised by Boniface III. and his immediate successors in the see of Rome, under the title of Universal Bishops, whether considered with respect to its extent of jurisdiction or degree of power, is fully entitled to the denomination of a Roman government.'

'In the beginning of the seventh century, (continues the author,) the woman again took her seat upon the beast, which then raised up

a seventh head—that is, the city of Rome again became an idolatrous power, and exercised dominion under a seventh form.'

This seventh form, according to the author, was the Universal Bishopric assumed by the See of Rome; which he considers as distinct from the eighth or the papal antichrist, and which prepared the way for its introduction and establishment. To this purpose, he cites the declaration of Gregory the Great; who pronounces, in the most unequivocal terms, that he who assumes the title of Universal Bishop *Antichristum præcurrit.* 'When the pride, the ambition, and the persecuting spirit, together with a great part of the territorial possessions, of the Pagan empire (the beast that was and is not) were transferred to the Universal Bishopric, the relative state of Rome was so far changed, that she might almost be said to have acquired a new government.' Accordingly, when St. John, after having recounted seven kings, or forms of government, mentions an eighth king in a manner that marks the change which the seventh was to undergo, 'he sufficiently cautions us against looking for an eighth distinct form of government, by adding that it is "of the seven"—*i. e.* "proceeding, or springing from the seven."

In the sequel, the author proceeds to shew that

'The Universal Bishopric, after continuing for near a century and a half (a short space compared with the duration of those powers which immediately preceded and followed it) underwent that extraordinary and important change which entitled it to be considered as the eighth king or Papal Antichrist.'—'When we consider the character of the papacy about the middle of the eighth century, the antichristian vices by which the Popes of that remarkable period were distinguished, the hostility to pure and spiritual worship which they maintained, and the enormous accession of power which they received, we shall not hesitate to allow, that the Universal Bishop then grew into the Papal Antichrist. And if it were necessary to assign a precise period for the commencement of the reign of the latter, we should not perhaps incur much danger of error in fixing upon the year of our Lord 755, when Pepin, either influenced by the hope of obtaining the promised remission of his sins, or by gratitude for the services of his spiritual coadjutor in dethroning his lawful sovereign, first placed the Universal Bishop on the throne of temporal dominion, and thereby crowned his unrighteous projects with success.'

We now leave the argument to the judgment of those who are competent to decide on this subject; or, at least, who have more leisure to pursue so intricate a subject than we can boast.

Re.s.

ART. III. *Letters to a Prebendary:* being an Answer to Reflections on Popery, by the Rev. J. Sturges, LL. D. Prebendary and Chancellor of Winchester, and Chaplain to his Majesty; with Remarks on the Opposition of Hoadlyism to the Doctrines of the Church of England, and on various Publications occasioned by the late Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Winchester. By the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F.S.A. 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

IT is not with much pleasure that we find ourselves again called to the controversy which is the subject of these letters. If an ability to form a proper judgment concerning the merits of it depend on a previous acquaintance with the writings of 'the famous schoolman St. Thomas Aquinas,' as Mr. Milner intimates, (p. 21,) we must decline giving any opinion in the present case: for we profess that we have not derived our knowlege of the doctrines of religion from this source. The learned prebendary also, to whom the letters are addressed, has been not less unfortunate in the course of his education than ourselves; and to this cause it is owing, according to the present author, that he has not learnt 'to state religious doctrines with more precision and accuracy, and also to reason upon them with more solidity and force' than he has done. Mr. Milner, however, recurring to a much higher authority than that of this venerable schoolman, challenges his antagonist to explain away, by means of his scriptural knowlege,

'That clear and energetical declaration of Christ, for the superiority of the first bishop of Rome, St. Peter, over the rest of the apostles; where this saint, in reward for his glorious confession of his master's divinity, is pronounced by him *blessed;* his name, which was before *Simon,* is changed into that of *Peter* or *Rock,* with an assurance that the church itself shall be principally built upon him; where immediately afterwards the mysterious keys of heaven, to the exercise of which such important effects are here ascribed, are specially committed to him; and that other passage, where the same Peter, who, on every other occasion, is named the first on the list of apostles, is in a most solemn and impressive manner, three several times appointed to the supreme pastorship in Christ's fold; with authority not only to feed the lambs, but also the sheep themselves, whom the lambs are accustomed to follow.'

By this kind of reasoning, the supremacy of Peter is established; and who can doubt his being the first bishop of Rome, or hesitate to allow a regular transfer of all his spiritual powers to his successors? The author then proceeds to evince the claims of the subsequent bishops of the Roman see, the mode in which they acquired and maintained ecclesiastical pre-eminence, and the advantages resulting from it. He contrasts

trasts the signal services which they rendered to literature and religion, and to society in general, with the vices and crimes with which some of them have been charged; and he closes his panegyric with observing, that 'the worst popes were of more service to the cause of religion by filling their station in the church, than they were of detriment to it by the effect and scandal of their personal crimes.'—'In the catalogue,' he says, 'of about 255 pontiffs, who have filled the chair of Rome, during a succession of almost 1800 years, since the days of St. Peter, perhaps not more than 30 names occur which dishonour it; while double that number have been persons of eminent virtues and heroic sanctity, whose example is publicly held out for the edification of Christians; and the rest have been prelates of unblemished manners and edifying piety.'

After having enlarged on the virtues and the sufferings of the late pope, Pius VI., 'whose essential authority *was* not less real in the dungeons of Dauphiny than it was in the Lateran and Vatican basilics,' the author terminates his eulogy with a kind of triumph:

'Whilst you, Sir, glory in the mutability of your creed, which you give us to understand can accommodate itself to fluctuating opinions, permit me to glory in the unchangeable nature of mine. Fixed on the firm basis of the *faith which was once delivered to the saints*, it has already withstood the violence and calamities of 18 centuries; and it will, I am well assured, continue to withstand all opposition, until the second coming of its divine founder.'

In order to guard against any misapprehension of the sense in which he maintains the papal supremacy, Mr. Milner explains his meaning in the following proposition:

'That the pope is possessed of a real superiority and authority in the Christian church, conformable to the text above; that the church herself, as composed of a head and members, is, by virtue of the divine promises, supernaturally assisted in preserving and teaching the truths that were originally revealed to her; and that the said spiritual jurisdiction, whether of the pope or of the church, is of a pure spiritual nature, and perfectly distinct from the temporal rights and authority of princes and states. This last mentioned point, which is of principal importance on the present occasion, as it is that on which you endeavour to render the allegiance of catholics suspected, is not only conformable to scripture, (Matt. xxii. 21.) and to the doctrine of the most celebrated pontiffs and prelates in ancient times, but what is of the most consequence, directly follows from the solemn oath which the catholics have of late taken to the legislature, by its own appointment.' [The oath is as follows: "I do declare, that I do not believe that the pope, or any other foreign prince, prelate, &c. hath, or ought to have, any civil jurisdiction, power, superiority, or pre-eminence, directly or indirectly, within this realm." 31 Geo. III. c. 32.]

The 3d letter contains an elaborate defence of monastic institutions, and of clerical celibacy. Mr. M. concludes it with observing that,

'However honourable and even holy the state of matrimony is in itself, however necessary it is to the state, and however conformable to the general condition of mankind, still it may be for the benefit of religion, that the small number, who, as Christ says, receive this saying (Matt. xix. 11.), and who are called to the exercise of the Christian ministry, should for the sake of their flocks lead continent lives. They can have no other adequate motive for universally subjecting themselves to this restraint.'

The purport of the 4th letter is to prove that persecution was not a tenet of the Roman catholic religion. To this end, Mr. M. alleges that, 'if the mere fact of catholics having used violence against persons of a different communion, were a proof that persecution was a tenet of their faith, as you argue in the first instance, this would equally prove that this doctrine equally made part of the creed of almost all denominations of protestants.' He argues this point by shewing that 'the several sects of protestants have, in many places, and upon principle, persecuted each other to the extremities of exile, perpetual imprisonment, and death.'

He next examines the decrees and canons of general councils, and particularly the 3d canon of Lateran IV., held in 1215, 'which excommunicated all heretics, and ordered that they should be delivered up to the secular power to undergo due punishment; and that the latter should be obliged, under pain of ecclesiastical censures, and the loss of their lands, to extirpate all heretics resident upon them.' For evading the force of this canon, Mr. M. observes that some writers have questioned its authenticity; that, admitting it to be genuine, it has now no force in any part of the church; that the ordinances of this council were made with the concurrence of those who had competent authority in these matters; and that, with respect to the justice of the canon, it should be remembered 'that, in the catalogue of heresies, which have prevailed in different ages, there was one of so impious, so perfidious, and so infamous a nature, and above all so destructive of the human species, that a pagan government would betray its duty, which neglected to extirpate it by fire and sword.' This heresy the author traces from the Gnostics, in the age immediately following that of the apostles, to the Manicheans, who derived it from the Persian Manes; from them to the Paulicians in Armen ; and thr ugh the kingdom of Bulgaria, between the Danube and the Black Sea, to France, Italy, and Spain, in the 10th and 11th centuries; where those who

espoused

espoused it were denominated Albigenses, Beghardi, Brethren of the Free Spirit, &c. To the persecution of the Albigenses, against whose errors and preaching Mr. Milner exclaims with peculiar violence, the continuance of society and of the human race is ascribed; and they are represented as the pests of the communities in which they were found.

As to the Inquisition, Mr. Milner maintains 'that the practices, and the very existence of the inquisition, have as little connection with the catholic religion, as they have with my history of Winchester, where they are not, to my recollection, once mentioned.'—'I fear, (he adds,) if the spirit of our respective churches is estimated by what you and I have advanced concerning the persecutions which more immediately relate to ourselves, namely, those which have taken place in this country since the reformation, that the balance of toleration will not appear to be in favour of the church of which you are the advocate.'—Closing the contrast of Elizabeth's severities with those of Mary, 'will you then at length, (he says,) enter into the proposed compromise, of not in future reproaching me with the fires of Mary's reign, upon my consenting not to upbraid you with the knives and gibbets of Elizabeth's? If you do not agree to this, I think I can answer for it, that the reader will decide that it is your duty so to do.'

In the 5th letter, Mr. M. investigates the state of literature, the arts, religion, and morality, before and after the reformation; and he exhibits a very unfavourable and exaggerated representation of the principal persons who were concerned in effecting this event. Luther leads the van, and he is followed by Zuinglius, Carlostadius, Oecolompadius, Ochin, Calvin, and Beza. Hooper, Latimer, Ridley, and Cranmer, are also selected as victims to the author's zeal against the cause which they were active in promoting.—The evident design of this letter is to evince the injury which the reformation produced with regard to the principles and morals of the countries in which it was encouraged, and to vilify those who were the chief agents in accomplishing it.

The 6th letter contains a detailed account of the state and conduct of the catholics, particularly during the reign of Elizabeth; at which period Mr. M. observes, 'their behaviour was eminently loyal and meritorious.'—In the next letter, the same subject is pursued; and the author attempts, by various documents, to vindicate the catholics from any concern in the principal plot which the history of the reign of the Stuarts records; while he enumerates, with a minuteness which does credit to the industry of his research, and with an asperity for which his profession will furnish some apology, the severities which

which they endured at and after the period of the revolution. He does not forget to mention the unwarrantable conduct of the Protestant Association.

We are not surprised that Mr. M. should renew his attack on the principles and character of Bishop Hoadly: but while he professes to be actuated by a regard for the general interests of Christianity, and for the peace and welfare of the community, we could have wished that he had manifested more of the Christian spirit, and more of that liberality and candour which might have been expected from a scholar and a divine.

'If I cannot persuade Christians, (says Mr. M.,) to admit of that living speaking tribunal in the pastors of the universal church, which I conceive to be as necessary for preserving it in absolute peace and unity, as the living speaking tribunal of judges and magistrates is found to be for the safety of the state, I wish to prevent them from frittering away their religion, and launching into that latitudinarianism, with which Hoadly has been so generally and justly reproached: being persuaded that this is the direct road to the philosophic incredulity of modern times. If they will not be good catholics, I am desirous that they should remain good church of England-men, convinced that thereby the sacred code of revelation will be much less violated, and the public peace and happiness much more effectually secured.'

With the view of exposing this excellent prelate, and those who adopt his sentiments, to general odium, the writer compares his doctrines with the articles and liturgy of the church; particularly with regard to the nature and form of the church, the sacraments, the Christian mysteries, and the assent or subscription which is required to the 39 articles and the Book of Common Prayer. The attack on Hoadly also furnishes occasion for declamation and invective against Dr. Balguy, and more especially Dr. Sturges, the author's antagonist; and accordingly the letter on Hoadlyism is principally levelled against these writers. Of the spirit with which it is written, the following specimen may suffice:

'It is true, (says Mr. M. addressing Dr. S.) you boast of having scripture on your side. And what extravagant or impious innovation in the church during 18 centuries has not made the same boast? If every other argument, demonstrating the necessity of a living speaking tribunal, to determine the sense of scripture, were wanting, the confidence with which yourself and others of the most learned divines of the present day appeal to the four Evangelists, in proof that the sacraments are devoid of all mystery and grace, would alone be sufficient to convince me of it.'

The learned prebendary is competent to his own vindication, if he should think proper to defend himself, and those who entertain sentiments similar to his own, against the present attack;

attack: but the mode of it, we conceive, is not such as merits very respectful attention.

Of the Appendix to these Letters, which contains remarks more immediately relating to the history of Winchester, we cannot take any notice in an article already extended far beyond our intention. Rev.

ART. IV. *The Annual Necrology*, for 1797-8. Including also various Articles of neglected Biography. 8vo. pp. 660. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1800.

OMITTING any trite panegyric on the *subject* of the volume before us, we shall only observe, what every biographical tract obtrudes on the attention, that there is no proportion between the utility of this kind of composition and the facility of the execution; or the kind of talents and the frame of mind which are necessary to render it excellent. The present age has abounded in biographical works, and they yet continue to increase: but, unfortunately for the public, they have generally been formed from very scanty materials; and they too often treat of men not only unimportant in themselves, but whose lives afford little variety of instruction to the reader; or finally, each article is the panegyric of a friend, or the invective of an enemy. In fact, impediments stand in the way of any great advances to excellence in biography, which are nearly, if not altogether, insurmountable: since the materials necessary for composing an instructive and authentic account of any person are generally to be collected only from the individual himself;—and he who relates the facts of his own life will seldom be a faithful and impartial narrator. On the other hand, if we confine ourselves to what may be called the public incidents in the life of the individual, (those circumstances which, from their publicity, may be with certainty known,) the recital of them must be jejune and unimportant;—because, undoubtedly, the most interesting part of every man's history is that which lies only within his own knowlege, or can least have been communicated to others; that part which led to the great changes by which the epochs of his life are marked; which comprehends the motives, the feelings, and the impulses that gave birth to his plans, and suggested those projects that have ended in defeat, or those which have been crowned by eventual success. Perhaps, therefore, it ought rather to be attributed to the nature of the undertaking, than to any fault in the compiler of the volume before us, that we here find sometimes but a faint outline of an important life, and sometimes a detail of minute and petty cir-

cumstances, evidently collected by partial friendship. To avoid both of these extremes is, probably, a task which we shall seldom see executed. We must therefore be contented with biography such as we generally find it, subject to these imperfections; and, as we cannot frequently expect authentic, full, and impartial narratives, we must learn to be satisfied with those which are least doubtful, least scanty, and least prejudiced.

In the volume before us, we have accounts of *thirty-four* characters, each of whom has in some respect attracted, or deserved to attract, the notice of mankind. Among these we find the names of the Abbé Barthelemy, M. Bailly, M. Lavoisier, Mr. Bakewell, Dr. Kippis, Count Hertzberg, Mr. Burke, Catharine II., Dr. Farmer, General Hoche, Theodore late King of Corsica, his son Colonel Frederic, Mr. Wilkes, Miss Wollstonecraft, Condorcet, &c. &c. As these sketches have been drawn by a number of hands, much inequality in the execution may be pre-supposed: but the reader will find that the aggregate of the work is intitled to a considerable degree of praise, for the general merit of style, for judicious observation, and for entertaining anecdote.

In the variety of articles of which the volume consists, there is scarcely one which our limits will suffer us to transcribe as a specimen: but, rather than deny our readers any of the entertainment which it affords, we shall give the substance of what we here find respecting the late unfortunate Colonel Frederic.

'The following account, which he was accustomed to give of himself, affords some insight respecting the place of his birth:—

"I am the child of misfortune. Theodore king of Corsica was my father; after a variety of adventures, he repaired to the court of Spain; obtained the rank of colonel in that service; and married lady Sarsfield, of the noble house of Lucan in the kingdom of Ireland, who had been appointed maid of honour to the queen, in consequence of the misfortunes of her father, and his attachment to the house of Stuart.

"I am the fruit of that union. My father, after spending a great deal of money, and getting into debt, left us; and, in consequence of various changes of fortune, both acquired and lost the crown of Corsica; he then repaired to England, where I his son followed him, in order to share his misfortunes, and administer to his necessities."

'It would appear then, that he was born in Spain; but the particulars of his infancy are wholly unknown. He is said, however, to have been brought up at Rome, and to have received his education, which was certainly a liberal one, in that city. Indeed, from many circumstances observable to those who have conversed with him, it was pretty plain that his early youth had been spent in a college, and he himself committed to the care of the priesthood. He was accustomed

customed to assert, that he had been placed for some time under the tuition of professor Lobcowitz, a man of some celebrity, and who had attained considerable eminence by a treatise on astronomy, written, according to the fashion of that day, in the Latin tongue.

'The only account we have of his youth is gathered from one of his own publications; in which he says he was bred a military man, and "had made several campaigns under the most experienced generals of the age." He further remarks, that when the brave Corsicans made so gallant a stand in defence of their liberties, "he himself, with Buttafuoco and Colonna, two Corsican gentlemen, who had served with distinction in the regiment, composed of their countrymen, in the service of France, offered to join Paoli in so glorious cause, but he rejected the offer."

'He is also reported to have occupied a literary department in the cabinet of Frederick II. of Prussia.

'But whatever might have been his profession, or situation in life, certain it is that he united a knowledge of military tactics to great skill in the civil and canon law, and attained an uncommon facility in all the languages of Europe. He spoke French, German, Italian, and Spanish, with great fluency; and he acquired a considerable degree of perfection even in English, which is allowed to be extremely difficult to a foreigner, and more especially to a native of the south of Europe. He, however, conversed in it with considerable ease, and was particularly attentive to the grammatical construction; but it was soon perceived, by his accent, that it had not been familiar to him from his birth.

'On his first arrival from the continent, about the year 1754, he betook himself to the teaching of Italian, and subsisted for several years by that means. At this period of his life he got acquainted with many men of considerable celebrity, and Macklin and Garrick are said to have been his scholars. By the latter he was promised great things; the former he introduced to Mr. Wedderburne, the present lord chancellor, who at that time wished to get rid of his northern accent, in which he has most effectually succeeded. He himself was also his lordship's instructor.

'During the confinement of Theodore he visited him frequently, and is said to have shared his scanty pittance with that unfortunate monarch in a manner that would have done credit to the most affectionate son.

'By a German lady whom he married abroad he had two children: the one a son, the other a daughter. The first perished at the battle of German town, the other is still alive. I have been repeatedly assured by himself, that he had more than once tasted the bounty of the late princess dowager of Wales, who compassionated his misfortunes and those of his family. There is also some reason to believe that her Royal Highness was partly induced, from certain *political motives*, to patronize him; for it was rumoured at that time, that the Duke of York, brother of his present Majesty, had conceived the idea of becoming king of Corsica; and although this was treated as a vague report, in a tract published at that period, yet it appears evident

evident that colonel Frederick had drawn up a manuscript account of the island, for the inspection of his Royal Highness.

'After an absence of a few months on the continent, Frederick returned to London with a ribband in his hat. He also occasionally appeared in a green uniform, richly laced with silver, and long German epaulets; and, as he was said to have obtained the *brevet* rank of colonel from the late duke of Wurtemburgh, and also the *croix de merite*, he was ever after recognised by that appellation. Although not formally acknowledged as his serene highness's agent in this country, it is well known, however, that he transacted business of a diplomatic nature in his name; and helped him to dispose of a regiment of his subjects to the English East India Company. Towards the latter end of the American war, the colonel also tendered the service of a body of Wurtemburgers, ready disciplined and accoutred; and he was accustomed to assert, that the premier having cheerfully acceded to the proposition, the troops were actually put in motion, and considerable expences incurred. On being countermanded, soon after this, by an order from Great Britain, the colonel preferred a claim for bat and forage money, pay and subsistence, amounting to many thousand florins; and his pretensions were backed by repeated memorials, addressed to all the different administrations that have succeeded each other since that period until 1797.

'In the year 1791 an affair which promised to be of some service to his finances occurred. The prince of Wales, and some of the younger branches of the royal family, had conceived the idea of obtaining a considerable loan on the continent, by means of their joint security; and colonel Frederick was actually sent to Antwerp to negociate the business. His majesty, however, disliking the scheme, openly interposed by means of his agents; and prevailed not only on a respectable banking-house abroad to withdraw its countenance, but also prevented the subscribers from advancing the money according to agreement. On the failure of this unprosperous affair he returned to England, much chagrined and disappointed; and never mentioned the subject without a considerable degree of emotion. Soon after this he drew up a statement of the case, which death alone prevented him from publishing.

'His finances, during many years, were in a deranged state; and, for some time before his demise, he had been occasionally supplied with little sums from various friends. Being a great economist, his expences were small; but, notwithstanding this, he had contracted several trifling debts, and one in particular to an amount which subjects a man's body to the rigours of a jail. In short, he was in daily danger of being arrested; and thus became prevented from frequenting those places and persons rendered dear to him by custom.

'Another object, of no small concern to a feeling mind, occupied and agitated his thoughts. This was the situation of his daughter, Mrs. Clarke, a lady who had also her full share of misfortunes. His amiable grand-daughters too were grown up, but remained wholly unprovided for. It had been the colonel's custom to visit them frequently.

quently, and on all occasions, when it suited his convenience, he was sure to make little presents to the family. Unable to administer to their relief, he had not repaired to their residence, in St. Mary-le-Bone, for a considerable time previously to the melancholy catastrophe that soon after ensued; and he sent word, "that he would never see them again, until he could do it in a satisfactory manner."

'As it now became dangerous to remain any longer at his lodgings in Northumberland-street, in the Strand, where he had resided during many years, he repaired to Waghorn's coffee-house, under the house of lords, and communicated his fears to Mrs. Seagoe, who permitted him, during that night, to sleep in another house belonging to her in the neighhourhood. In the morning he repaired to the attorney of the plaintiff, who had sued out a writ against him, to solicit a little delay, but he was refused this in a brutal manner. He then asked a friend for the loan of twenty pounds; but receiving an equivocal answer, became distracted at his situation. His misfortunes now multiplied every hour, and his calamities became, at length, so great, that he determined to put an immediate period to his existence. It was at this critical period that he is supposed to have written the following melancholy note, on a slip of paper:———

"All the curses in the tragedies are fallen upon me; without a house, without a country, without a friend; having for enemies even those men whom I have obliged. Incumbered with debts, and so poor that I live only from day to day, and sometimes I have nothing to live.

"To these I have opposed magnanimity to distress, nature to law, and reason to the troubles of the soul."

'On this awful occasion (his purpose being at length fixed) his conduct afforded a singular specimen of calm intrepidity; and there is perhaps no instance on record, in which suicide has ever been committed with more cool determination. Indeed he seems, on this occasion, to have resolved the long agitated problem, whether self-destruction be not always produced by insanity?

'Having procured and loaded a pistol, and being no longer apprehensive of the myrmidons of the law, whose power he could now set at defiance, he arose at the usual hour in the morning of Wednesday February 1, 1796, and walked out in his customary manner, without exhibiting any signs of agitation, or betraying any symptons of his dreadful purpose, to those whom he accosted.

'Towards the afternoon he proceeded to Storey's-gate coffee-house, Westminster, a place often frequented by him, where he dined. He then called for his half pint of port, a quantity he rarely exceeded; looked over the morning papers; asked for and perused an evening one; and departed at eight o'clock, with his accustomed serenity.

'Having then repaired straight to the gate of Westminster-abbey, which is in the immediate vicinage, he pulled out the instrument of destruction from his pocket, and applying it to his temple, drew the fatal trigger, and in a moment ceased to exist.'

This work, we are told by the editor, is to be continued annually. It will certainly be no common industry that will enable him to furnish yearly such a volume as the present. **Wall..e.**

ART.

ART. V. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year 1800. Part I.* 4to. sewed. Elmsly and Bremner.

ACCORDING to our former practice, we shall divide the papers in this volume into classes; and we shall now begin with those which range under the head of

MATHEMATICS.

'*On the Method of determining, from the real Probabilities of Life, the Values of Contingent Reversions in which three Lives are involved in the Survivorship.* *By* William Morgan, Esq. F.R.S.

In this paper, the ingenious author pursues his investigation of the doctrine of contingent reversions, as they are applicable to those cases in which three lives are concerned in the survivorship; and the problems now presented to the public, added to those contained in his former papers, afford a complete view of the subject to persons who are conversant in this department of science. As Mr. Morgan's eminence in disquisitions of this nature is universally acknowleged, it may be sufficient to observe, on the present occasion, that we are indebted to him for the first solutions that have ever been deduced, in the case of two and three lives, from just principles, and the real probabilities of life; and that, with respect to many of the problems, none have ever attempted so much as to *approximate* to the value of the reversion. 'Being possessed (says Mr. M.) of correct solutions of all the cases in which two or three lives are involved in the survivorship, we are possessed of all that is really useful, and therefore I feel the greater satisfaction in closing my inquiries on this subject. For, in regard to contingencies depending on four or more lives, the cases are not only much too numerous and intricate to admit of a solution, but they occur so seldom in practice, as to render the entire investigation of them, were it even possible, a matter of little or no importance.'

Of Mr. Hellins's *second Appendix to the improved Solution of a Problem in Physical Astronomy, inserted in the Philosophical Transactions for the Year* 1798, we shall only say that it is a valuable addition to his former communications on the same subject; as it furnishes improved *formulæ* for facilitating and abridging the calculations that are necessary in the solution of the problem to which they relate. Sir Godfrey Copley's medal has been adjudged to Mr. H. for this solution, and his other mathematical papers.

PHILOSOPHY.

On the Power of penetrating into Space by Telescopes; with a comparative Determination of the Extent of that Power in Natural Vision,

Vision, and in Telescopes of various Sizes and Constructions; illustrated by select Observations. *By* William Herschel, *LL. D.* F.R.S.

In order to proceed with clearness and facility in the discussion of the subjects of this paper, the author begins with defining the terms which most frequently occur, and explaining some algebraic symbols which he has adopted for expressing them. He ascribes brightness to bodies that throw out light, and those which throw out most light are the brightest. The whole quantity of light thrown out by a luminous surface is called L; and the luminous physical points which compose this surface are denoted by N. If the copiousness of the emission of light from each of these points were precisely the same, it might be expressed by C: but, as that is most probably never the case, C is made to signify the mean quantity. Hence it appears that CN is equal to L; and brightness will consequently be truly defined by CN. In estimating the appearance of luminous objects at any assigned distance, it will be proper to leave out of the account every part of CN, which is not applied to the purpose of vision; and, therefore, as L represents the whole quantity of light thrown out by CN, that part of it which is used in vision, either by the eye or by a telescope, is denoted by *l*. Accordingly, the equation of light, in this sense of it, is $CN=l$. As the density of light, however, decreases in the ratio of the squares of the distances of the luminous objects, the quantity of it at the distance D will be expressed by $\frac{l}{D^2}$.

In natural vision, the quantity *l* undergoes a considerable change by the opening and contracting of the pupil of the eye. If we call the aperture of the iris *a*, it is known to vary considerably in different persons. The variation of *a* in different circumstances is not easily ascertained: but, in determining the quantity of light admitted through a telescope, no such difficulty occurs. This must depend on the diameter of the object-glass, or mirror; and its aperture A may at all times be duly measured. Hence it follows that the expression $\frac{a^2 l}{D^2}$ will always be accurate for the quantity of light admitted by the eye, and $\frac{A^2 l}{D^2}$ sufficiently so for the telescope.

After having answered some objections to the theory of brightness here proposed, the author proceeds to investigate the general extent of natural vision.

'Among the reflecting luminous objects, our penetrating powers are sufficiently ascertained. From the Moon we may step to Venus, to Mercury, to Mars, to Jupiter, to Saturn, and last of all to the Georgian planet. An object seen by reflected light at a greater distance than this, it has never been allowed us to perceive: and indeed it is much to be admired, that we should see borrowed illumination to the distance of more than 18 hundred millions of miles; especially when that light, in coming from the Sun to the planet, has to pass through an equal space before it can be reflected, whereby it must be so enfeebled as to be above 368 times less intense on that planet than it is with us, and when probably not more than one-third part of that light can be thrown back from its disk. For, according to Mr. Bouguer, the surface of the Moon absorbs about two-thirds of the light it receives from the Sun.

'The range of natural vision with self-luminous objects, is incomparably more extended, but less accurately to be ascertained. From our brightest luminary, the Sun, we pass immediately to very distant objects; for Sirius, Arcturus, and the rest of the stars of the first magnitude, are probably those that come next; and what their distance may be, it is well known, can only be calculated imperfectly from the doctrine of parallaxes, which places the nearest of them at least 412,530 times farther from us than the Sun.'

Next to these stars of the first magnitude, a second set will occur; of which the situation, one with another, may be taken at about double the distance of the former from us. If we suppose α Cygni, β Tauri, &c. to belong to this class of the second magnitude, it is known that, whether we look at these or at the former, the aperture of the iris will probably undergo no change; and therefore a becomes a given quantity, and may be left out in the above expression $\frac{a^2 l}{D^2}$ for the brightness of these objects. D^2, according to the preceding statement of distance, will be in one case four times that of the other; and consequently the two expressions for the brightness of the stars will be l for those of the first magnitude, and $\frac{1}{4} l$ for those of the second.

'The quantities being thus prepared, what I mean to suggest (says the author) by an experiment is, that since sensations, by their nature, will not admit of being halved or quartered, we come thus to know by inspection, what phenomenon will be produced by the fourth part of the light of a star of the first magnitude. In this sense, I think we must take it for granted, that a certain idea of brightness, attached to the stars which are generally denominated to be of the second magnitude, may be added to our experimental knowledge; for, by this means, we are informed what we are to understand by the expressions $\frac{a^2 l}{\odot^2}$, $\frac{a^2 l}{\overline{\text{Sirius}}^2}$, $\frac{a^2 l}{\overline{\beta\ \text{Tauri}}^2}$.' *

'* The names of the objects ⊙, Sirius, β Tauri, are here used to express their distance from us.'

'We

'We cannot wonder at the immense difference between the brightness of the Sun and that of Sirius; since the two first expressions, when properly resolved, give us a ratio of brightness of more than 170 thousand millions to one; whereas the two latter, as has been shewn, give only a ratio of four to one.'

The author then proceeds to ascertain the comparative brightness of stars of the third magnitude, such as the pole-star, γ Cygni, ε Bootis, and others of the same order; and he finds that 'the difference between these and the stars of the preceding order is much less striking than that between the stars of the first and second magnitude;' and 'that the expressions $\frac{a^2 l}{\beta\text{Tauri}^2}$ and $\frac{a^2 l}{\text{Polaris}^2}$ are not in the high ratio of 4 to 1, but only as 9 to 4 or $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 1.'

From the faintness of stars of the 7th magnitude, Dr. H. infers that no star, 8, 9, or at most 10 times as far from us as Sirius, can possibly be perceived by the natural eye:—but, when the light of single stars fails, the united lustre of sidereal systems will still be perceived. Such are the whitish patch in the sword-handle of Perseus; beyond this the cluster discovered by M. Messier in 1764, north following H Geminorum; at a still farther distance, the nebula between η and ζ Hercules, discovered by Dr. Halley in 1714; and among the farthest objects that can make an impression on the eye, unaided by telescopes, the nebula in the girdle of Andromeda, discovered by Simon Marius in 1612.

Dr. Herschel's next object is to ascertain the penetrating power of the telescopes. In a telescope, the brightness or light admitted, which to the naked eye is truly represented by $\frac{a^2 l}{D^2}$, will be expressed by $\frac{A^2 l}{D^2}$; and therefore the artificial power of penetrating into space should be to the natural one as A to a: but this proportion must be corrected by the practical deficiency in light reflected by mirrors, or transmitted through glasses. Dr. H. investigates what allowances are to be made on this account; and he then deduces a general formula, which expresses the penetrating power of all sorts of telescopes compared with that of the natural eye, as a standard, according to any supposed aperture of the iris, and proportion of light returned by reflection, or transmitted by refraction. He proceeds to determine the powers of the instruments used by himself in his astronomical observations; and for this purpose he has reported the observations themselves, arranged in a manner which seemed to be the best adapted to his purpose.

He has also established the distinction subsisting between magnifying power and the power of penetrating into space, and has evinced the difference between them in a variety of instances. He shews how these powers occasionally interfere with each other, so that in some instances the magnifying power is injured by the penetrating power, and *vice versâ*; and he observes that the highest power of magnifying may possibly not exceed the reach of a 20 or 25 feet telescope, or may lie in even a less compass, allowing for some favourable hours, in which it is hardly possible to set a limit to magnifying power. With respect to the penetrating power of telescopes, he is of opinion that there is room for a considerable increase. The penetrating power of his 40 feet reflector already extends to 191,69, and he thinks that it might be carried to 500, but probably not much farther. 'The natural limit seems to be an equation between the faintest star that can be made visible by any means, and the united brilliancy of star-light.' He concludes, on the whole, 'that objects are viewed in their greatest perfection, when, in penetrating space, the magnifying power is so low as only to be sufficient to shew the object well; and when in magnifying objects, by way of examining them minutely, the space-penetrating power is no higher than what will suffice for the purpose; for in the use of either power, the injudicious overcharge of the other will prove hurtful to perfect vision.'

The author terminates this paper with a calculation of the time which it would require to sweep the heavens as far as they are within the reach of his 40 feet telescope, charged with a magnifying power of 1000. Under all the circumstances that occur, a year which will afford 90, or at most 100 hours, may be deemed very productive; and with this allowance, it appears 'that it will require not less than 598 years to look with the 40 feet reflector, charged with the above-mentioned power, only one single moment into each part of space; and even then, so much of the southern hemisphere will remain unexplored, as will take up 213 years more to examine.'

Outlines of Experiments and Inquiries respecting Sound and Light. By Thomas Young, M.D. F.R.S.

The first section of this paper contains an estimate of the quantity of air discharged through an aperture, which the author determines to be nearly in the sub-duplicate ratio of the pressure; and he ascertains the ratio of the expenditures by different apertures, with the same pressure, to lie between the ratio of their diameters and that of their areas. The

apparatus

apparatus by means of which his estimate was formed is very simple, and the results are arranged in four tables.—In the 2d section, we have an account of experiments for determining the direction and velocity of a stream of air, with the conclusions deduced from them.—The 3d section contains a brief description of the author's contrivance for exhibiting ocular evidence of the nature of sound, illustrated by a figure.—The velocity of sound is the next object of inquiry; with respect to which it is remarked that, ' corrected by the experiments of various observers, the velocity of any impression transmitted by the common air may, at an average, be reckoned 1130 feet in a second.'—On the subject of sonorous cavities, M. De la Grange has demonstrated " that all impressions are reflected by an obstacle terminating an elastic fluid, with the same velocity with which they arrived at that obstacle." The same writer has also proved " that any impression whatever communicated to one particle of an elastic fluid, will be transmitted through that fluid with an uniform velocity, depending on the constitution of the fluid, without reference to any supposed laws of the continuation of that impression."

The 6th section treats of the divergence of sound. The author controverts the fact generally allowed on the authority of Newton, that, if any sound be admitted through an aperture into a chamber, it will diverge from that aperture equally in all directions. He observes that there is a material difference between impulse and pressure; the former, when transmitted by an elastic fluid, acting primarily in the direction of its progress. He adds that, if a person calls to another with a speaking trumpet, it is pointed towards the place where the hearer stands; and that a report of a cannon is many times louder to a person towards whom it is fired, than to one placed in a contrary direction. Other facts are adduced to the same purpose.

The decay of sound is the subject of the next section. M. De la Grange estimates it nearly in the simple ratio of the distances, and the same conclusion may be deduced from the experiments and reasoning of other writers:—but, from the reasoning of Maclaurin, with respect to the communication of motion through a series of elastic bodies increasing in magnitude, applied to the present case, Dr. Young infers that sound should decay in the duplicate ratio of the distance. This subject is referred to farther examination.

The 8th section treats of the harmonic sounds of pipes. The results of experiments on this subject are contained in a table, and exhibited in a figure.—In the 9th section, on the vibrations of different elastic fluids, Dr. Y. observes that all

the methods of finding the velocity of sound agree in determining it to be, in fluids of a given elasticity, reciprocally in the sub-duplicate ratio of the density. This circumstance will account for the different estimates given by different writers. The French Academicians state it to be 1109 feet in a second. Derham makes it amount to 1142. The average, the present author thinks, may be estimated, without any material error, at 1130. He adds;

'The well-known elevation of the pitch of wind-instruments, in the course of playing, sometimes amounting to half a note, is not, as is commonly supposed, owing to any expansion of the instrument, for this should produce a contrary effect, but to the increased warmth of the air in the tube. Dr. Smith has made a similar observation on the pitch of an organ in summer and winter, which he found to differ more than twice as much as the English and French experiments on the velocity of sound. Bianconi found the velocity of sound, at Bologna, to differ at different times, in the ratio of 152 to 157.'

In examining the analogy between light and sound, Dr Young suggests some difficulties which attend the Newtonian doctrine of the emanation of particles of light from lucid substances. The first is the uniform velocity with which light is supposed to be projected from all luminous bodies, in consequence of heat or otherwise. If the corpuscules of light differed in velocity, this variation ought to produce a different refraction. Besides, it appears in this system to be wholly inexplicable, why of the same kind of rays, in every circumstance precisely similar, some should be always refracted, and others transmitted. The uniformity of the motion of light, which is a difficulty in the Newtonian theory, favours the admission of the Huygenian, or that of an ethereal vibration; as all impressions are known to be transmitted through any elastic fluid with the same velocity. 'For explaining the phænomena of partial and total reflection, refraction and inflection, nothing more is necessary (says Dr. Young) than to suppose all refracting media to retain, by their attraction, a greater or less quantity of the luminous ether, so as to make its density greater than that which it possesses in a vacuum, without increasing its elasticity; and that light is a propagation of an impulse communicated to this ether by luminous bodies.'

That the colours of light consist in the different frequency of the vibrations of the luminous ether, which is the conjecture of Euler, is strongly confirmed by the analogy between the colours of a thin plate and the sounds of a series of organ-pipes. Dr. Young observes that,

'It

'It appears from the accurate analysis of the phenomena which Newton has given, and which has by no means been superseded by any later observations, that the same colour recurs whenever the thickness answers to the terms of an arithmetical progression. Now this is precisely similar to the production of the same sound, by means of an uniform blast, from organ-pipes which are different multiples of the same length. Supposing white light to be a continued impulse or stream of luminous ether, it may be conceived to act on the plates as a blast of air does on the organ-pipes, and to produce vibrations regulated in frequency by the length of the lines which are terminated by the two refracting surfaces.'

The remaining sections of this paper treat of the coalescence of musical sounds, the frequency of vibrations constituting a given note, the vibrations of chords, the vibrations of rods and plates, the human voice, and the temperament of musical intervals. These last are illustrated by figures, and one plate is appropriated to the purpose of exhibiting a comparative view of different systems of temperament; and this may be easily extended to all the systems that have ever been invented.

Experiments and Observations on the Light which is spontaneously emitted, with some Degree of Permanency, from various Bodies. *By* Nathaniel Hulme, M.D. F.R.S. & A.S.

The subject of this paper is that light which is emitted from marine animals, both in a living state and when deprived of life, from quadrupeds, from insects, from rotten wood, and from peat. This kind of light is called spontaneous, in order to distinguish it from all sorts of artificial phosphorus; and by its adhesion to bodies with some degree of permanency, it is different from that transient sort of light which is observable in electricity, in meteors, and in other lucid emanations. The numerous experiments which the author has recited were performed in a dark wine-vault, the heat of which varied throughout the year from about 40° of temperature to 64° of Fahrenheit. From the first series of experiments on herrings and mackerel, the author infers that light begins to be emitted by marine fishes before any signs of putrescency appear; and that, as soon as a great degree of putrefaction has taken place, the luminous property of the fishes is destroyed, and the light extinguished. This conclusion is very different from that of some other writers on the same subject; who have maintained that the quantity of light emitted by putrescent animal substances is proportioned to the degree of putrefaction; and they agree with the facts recorded by Aquapendente, Bartholin, Boyle, and Beale; who observed the light spontaneously emitted by animal flesh

before any perceptible putrescence could have taken place. Dr. Hulme observes that, for the purpose of these experiments, he selected the freshest fishes which could be obtained; and that he previously gutted them, took out the roes, (which are very productive of light,) and carefully removed the scales.

The second section contains a detail of several experiments designed to shew that the light here mentioned is a constituent principle of some bodies, particularly of marine fishes; that it may be separated from them by a peculiar process; and that it may be retained and rendered permanent for some time. The weight of about four drachms of a fresh herring was put into a solution of two drachms of Epsom salt, and two ounces of cold spring water. On carefully examining this liquid, which was contained in a wide-mouthed three-ounce phial, on the second evening after the process was begun, a lucid ring was observed to float at the top of the liquid, while the lower part was dark: but, on shaking the phial, the whole became at once beautifully luminous, and continued in this state. On the third evening, the light had again risen to the top: but the lucid ring appeared less vivid; and, on shaking the phial as before, the liquid was not so luminous as on the preceding night. This experiment and others similar to it were repeated, and afforded the same result. From other experiments, it appeared that the whole body of the fishes, which were examined, emitted a considerable quantity of light: but the soft roe, both of the herring and mackerel, abounded more with light than the flesh, and emitted generally more light than the hard roe.

From the several facts here enumerated, the author infers that this light is a constituent principle of marine fishes; that it is separated like other principles by the menstruum which is fitted to decompose their substance; and that it is incorporated with every part of this substance. He also concludes that light is probably the first constituent principle that escapes after the death of marine fishes; that no offensive putrefaction takes place in the sea, after the death of such myriads of animals as must daily perish in the ocean, quite contrary to what happens on land; and that the flesh of marine fishes remains tolerably sweet for some time, and may become wholesome food for many kinds of those which still remain alive. 'An eminent instance this (says the author,) of the wisdom of the Creator, in the construction of the aqueous part of the world, which comprehends, by far, the greatest portion of the terraqueous globe, and is the most replete with animal life.'

Dr. H. then proceeds to shew that some bodies or substances have a power of extinguishing spontaneous light, when it is applied to them. Of these he enumerates a great variety; such as

water;

water; water impregnated with quicklime, with carbonic acid gas, or with hepatic gas; fermented liquors; ardent spirits; mineral and vegetable acids; fixed and volatile alkalis, when dissolved in water; neutral salts, *i. e.* saturated solutions of Epsom salt, of common salt, and of sal ammoniac; infusions of chamomile flowers, long pepper, and camphor, in boiling hot water, and not used till they become quite cool, and pure honey, if used alone. Other substances have a power of preserving spontaneous light for some time, when it is applied to them; so that the luminous matter may be taken from the fishes which supply it, and diffused through water so as to render the whole liquid brilliantly luminous, or thus to impregnate water with light. It farther appears that, when spontaneous light is extinguished by some substances, it is not lost, but may be revived in its former splendour by the most simple means. From other experiments, it is deduced that spontaneous light is rendered more vivid by motion; and that it is not accompanied by any degree of sensible heat, discoverable by a thermometer. We learn also from experiments on the light of fishes, of shining wood, and of glow-worms, that cold extinguishes spontaneous light for a time, but not durably; as the light revived in its full splendour, as soon as it was exposed to a moderate degree of temperature. Heat extinguishes the light of fishes; shining wood, put into water at the temperature of 90° to 60°, became much more lucid, but was partially extinguished at about 110°, and totally in the heat of boiling water. When much heat is applied to the bottom of a tube filled with illuminated liquid, which has been for some time at rest, the light descended in luminous streams from the top of the tube to the bottom, and was gradually extinguished.

The last section contains a detail of experiments made with view of investigating the effects of the human body, and of the animal fluids, on spontaneous light.

Chemistry.

Account of a Series of Experiments, undertaken with the View of decomposing the muriatic Acid. By Mr. William Henry.

The decomposition of the muriatic acid is an object of interesting investigation to the chemist, as it would contribute towards establishing and completing the theory of the formation of acids in general, which is one of the most important parts of the new system of chemistry. The constitution of this acid being hitherto unknown, attempts for effecting the analysis of it must be directed by the analogy of the decomposition of other bodies, which, from similarity of character, are arranged in the same class. The ingenious writer of this

paper

paper observes, that the state of gas is the only one in which the muriatic acid can become a proper object of analysis. In a series of experiments on this gas, here recited, the electric fluid was employed as an agent much preferable to artificial heat.

The first course of experiments was pursued with a view of examining the effects of the electric fluid on the muriatic acid gas, without any admixture. For this purpose, the gas was confined over mercury in straight glass tubes of various diameters, armed at the sealed end with a conductor of gold or of platina, but generally of the latter metal; and the electric shocks were as strong as could be given without breaking the tube,—an accident which, notwithstanding, frequently occurred.

As our limits will not allow us to do justice to the experiments, by that minuteness of detail which would be necessary for this purpose, we must content ourselves with briefly reciting the conclusions which the author has deduced from them. They are as follow:

'1. The muriatic acid gas, in the driest state in which it can be procured, still contains a portion of water. 2. When electrical shocks are passed through this gas, the watery portion is decomposed. The hydrogen of the water, uniting with the electric matter, constitutes hydrogenous gas, and the oxygen unites with the muriatic acid; which last, acting on the mercury, composes muriate of mercury. 3. The electric fluid serves as an intermedium, in combining oxygen with muriatic acid. 4. The really acid portion of muriatic gas does not sustain any decomposition by the action of electricity. 5. When electric shocks are passed through a mixture of carbonated hydrogen and muriatic acid gases, the water held in solution by these gases is decomposed by the carbon of the compound inflammable gas; and carbonic acid and hydrogenous gases are the result. 6. When all the water of the two gases has been decomposed, no effect ensues from continuing the electrization; or, if the water of each gas has been previously destroyed, by electrifying them separately, no further effect ensues from electrifying them conjointly. 7. Since therefore carbon, though placed under the most favourable circumstances for abstracting from the muriatic acid, and combining with, its oxygen, evinces no such tendency, it may be inferred that if the muriatic acid be an oxygenated substance, its radical has a stronger affinity for oxygen than charcoal possesses.'

It appears from the whole result of the experiments, which Mr. Henry has judiciously selected, and on which he has bestowed much attention and labour, that

'All hope must be relinquished, of effecting the decomposition of the muriatic acid, in the way of single elective affinity. They furnish also a strong probability, that the basis of the muriatic acid is some unknown body; for no combustible substance, with which we are acquainted, can retain oxygen, when submitted in contact with charcoal,

charcoal, to the action of electricity, or of a high temperature. The analysis of this acid must, in future, be attempted with the aid of complicated affinities.'

Similar attempts were made to analyse the fluoric acid, but they were ineffectual. They serve, however, to render it probable that

'The fluoric acid, like the muriatic, is susceptible of still farther oxygenation, in which state it becomes capable of acting on mercury. The carbonic acid, on the contrary, appears not to admit of different degrees of oxygenation. When the electric shock has been repeatedly passed through a portion of this acid gas, its bulk is enlarged, and a permanent gas is produced, which is evidently a mixture of oxygenous and hydrogenous gases; for, when an electrical spark is passed through the gas that remains after the absorption of the carbonic acid by caustic alkali, it immediately explodes. These results even take place on electrifying carbonic acid from marble, previously calcined in a low red heat, to expel its water, and then distilled in an earthen retort.'

On a new fulminating Mercury. By Edward Howard, Esq. F. R. S.

The mercurial powder announced in this paper was prepared by intermixing the pure red oxide of mercury with alcohol, and affusing on both the nitric acid. The acid gradually dissolved the oxide; and, after some minutes had elapsed, a smell of ether was perceptible, and a white dense smoke, resembling that which arises from the *liquor fumans* of Libavius, was emitted with ebullition. The mixture then threw down a dark-coloured precipitate, which by degrees became nearly white. This precipitate was separated by filtration.—Observing it to be crystallized in small acicular crystals, of a saline taste, and finding a part of the mercury volatilized in the white fumes, Mr. Howard entertained hopes that muriatic acid had been formed, and united to the mercurial oxide. He therefore poured sulphuric acid on the dried crystalline mass; when a violent effervescence ensued, and, to his great astonishment, an explosion took place. For a more particular and minute investigation of the constituent principles of this powder, the best mode of preparing it, and the numerous experiments that were made with it, we must refer to the author's own account.

Anatomy.

The Croonian Lecture. On the Structure and Uses of the Membrana Tympani of the Ear. By Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S.

The principal object of investigation in this paper is the muscular structure of the *membrana tympani*. In the elephant, this membrane is so large, that the parts of which it is composed may be easily distinguished even by the naked eye; and its

its muscular fibres are observed to pass, in a radiated manner, from the bony ring which surrounds it, towards the handle of the malleus, to which the central part of the membrane is firmly attached. This discovery led to that of a similar construction in the human *membrana tympani*. Although this membrane in the human ear is much exceeded by that of the elephant, both in extent and thickness, and consequently its muscular structure is incapable of being so distinctly perceived by the naked eye, yet, in circumstances that are peculiarly favourable, it may be discerned without the aid of glasses.

'If the *membrana tympani* of the human ear is completely exposed on both sides, by removing the contiguous parts, and the cuticular covering is carefully washed off from its external surface, then, by placing it in a clear light, the radiated direction of its fibres may be easily detected. If a common magnifying glass is used, they are rendered nearly as distinct as those of the elephant appear to the naked eye; their course is exactly the same; and they differ in nothing but in being formed upon a smaller scale. When viewed in a microscope magnifying 23 times, the muscular fibres are beautifully conspicuous, and appear uniformly the same throughout the whole surface, there being no central tendons, as in the diaphragm; the muscular fibres appear only to form the internal layer of the membrane, and are most distinctly seen when viewed on that side.'

As muscles in general are supplied with blood-vessels in proportion to the frequency of their action, it is an object of importance to determine the vascularity of the membrana tympani. This the author was enabled to do by a preparation of the membrane, furnished by Dr. Baillie, in which the vessels had been most successfully injected with coloured wax. In this preparation, the vessels, in their distribution, resembled those of the iris, and were nearly half as numerous; and from this correspondence in the number and distribution of blood-vessels between the *membrana tympani* and the iris, it is justly presumed that this membrane is endowed with muscular action.

In the horse, this membrane is smaller than in man, and its fibrous structure is not visible to the naked eye: but with a microscope it is very discernible, and appears in every respect to agree with that of the membrane in the human ear and in that of the elephant. The *membrana tympani* of birds is larger in proportion than in the quadruped, and, when examined with a microscope, presents a visible radiated structure.

From a knowlege of the muscular structure of the *membrana tympani*, Mr. Home accounts for many phænomena in hearing, which have not hitherto been explained in a satisfactory manner. 'It is principally by means of this muscle, that accurate perceptions of sound are communicated to the internal organ, and

and that the membrana tympani is enabled to vary the state of its tension, so as to receive them in the quick succession in which they are conveyed to it.' In order to account for the manner in which the radiated muscle adapts the *membrana tympani* to different sounds, Mr. Home enumerates the more important parts of the organ of hearing, and points out the uses commonly assigned to each of them. He then observes that the *membrana tympani* is stretched and relaxed by the action of the muscles of the malleus, not for the purpose alleged in the commonly received theory, but 'to bring the radiated muscle of the membrane itself into a state capable of acting, and of giving those different degrees of tension to the membrane which empower it to correspond with the variety of external tremors: when the membrane is relaxed, the radiated muscle cannot act with any effect, and external tremors make less accurate impressions.'

'The membrana tympani, with its tensor and radiated muscles, may be not unaptly compared to a monochord, of which the membrana tympani is the string; the tensor muscle the screw, giving the necessary tension to make the string perform its proper scale of vibrations; and the radiated muscle acting upon the membrane like the moveable bridge of the monochord, adjusting it to the vibrations required to be produced. The combined effects of the action of these muscles give the perceptions of grave and acute tones; and, in proportion as their original conformation is more or less perfect, so will their actions be, and, consequently, the perceptions of sound which they communicate.'

It is a curious circumstance, mentioned by the author, that a similar application of muscles should be employed to fit the fingers to produce a succession of sounds, and to enable the ear to be impressed by them.

'From the explanation given of the adjustment of the membrana tympani, the difference between a musical ear and one which is too imperfect to distinguish the different notes in music, will appear to arise entirely from the greater or less nicety with which the muscle of the malleus renders the membrane capable of being truly adjusted. If the tension be perfect, all the variations produced by the action of the radiated muscle will be equally correct, and the ear truly musical; but if the first adjustment is imperfect, although the actions of the radiated muscle may still produce infinite variations, none of them will be correct: the effect, in this respect, will be similar to that produced by playing on a musical instrument which is not in tune. The hearing of articulate sounds requires less nicety in the adjustment, than of inarticulate or musical ones: an ear may therefore be able to perceive the one, although it is not fitted to receive distinct perceptions from the other.'—'This mode of adapting the ear to different sounds, appears to be one of the most beautiful applications of

muscles in the body; the mechanism is so simple, and the variety of effects so great.'

Mr. Home then mentions some remarkable instances, in which the correctness of hearing is affected by the wrong actions of the muscles of the tympanum. These appeared to be inexplicable, but we may readily account for them in consequence of our knowing the means by which the membrane adjusts itself on particular occasions.—The disposition and office of the *membrana tympani* in fish, birds, quadrupeds, and particularly the elephant, are investigated in the sequel of this interesting paper. Several circumstances are recited, which confirm the opinion generally received that the hearing of the elephant is more acute than that of man. Mr. Home observes that, as the organ of hearing belonging to this quadruped is more perfect, and formed on a larger scale than in any other animal with which we are acquainted, considerable weight is given to this opinion.

Observations on the Effects which take place from the Destruction of the Membrana Tympani of the Ear. By Mr. Astley Cooper. *With Remarks by* Everard Home, *Esq.*

The observations contained in this paper, and founded on two remarkable cases that occurred, incontestibly prove that the loss of the *membrana tympani* in both ears, far from producing total deafness, occasions only a slight diminution of the powers of hearing. This conclusion is deduced by Mr. Cooper from the facts which he has recited; and he adds that the functions of this membrane have been probably supplied by the membranes of the *fenestra ovalis* and *fenestra rotunda.* 'The office of that membrane (says Mr. Home,) is to afford an extended surface, capable of receiving impressions from the external air, and of communicating them to the small bones of the ear; which a membrane would be incapable of doing, unless it had a power of varying its tension, to adapt it to different vibrations.' When the *membrana tympani* has been destroyed, 'the air is capable of acting with sufficient force upon the *stapes* to communicate vibrations to it, and to produce on the internal organ the necessary effect for perfect hearing.' This fact is completely ascertained by Mr. Cooper's observations.

Account of a Peculiarity in the Distribution of the Arteries sent to the Limbs of slow-moving Animals; together with some other similar Facts. In a Letter from Mr. Anthony Carlisle, *Surgeon, to* John Symmons, Esq. F.R.S.

The Maucauco, or *Lemur tardigradus* of Linné, was injected with a view of exhibiting the course of the arteries, which

which deviate from the ordinary arrangement of these blood-vessels in other animals. This peculiarity is observable in the axillary arteries, and in the iliacs.

'These vessels, at their entrance into the upper and lower limbs, are suddenly divided into a number of equal-sized cylinders, which occasionally anastomose with each other. They are exclusively distributed on the muscles; whilst the arteries sent to all the parts of the body, excepting the limbs, divide in the usual arborescent form; and, even those arteries of the limbs which are employed upon substances not muscular, branch off like the common blood-vessels. I counted (says the author,) 23 of these cylinders, parallel to each other, about the middle of the upper arm; and 17 in the inguinal fasciculus.'

The *bradypus tridactylus*, or great American sloth, the *bradypus didactylus*, and the *lemur levis*, have a similar distribution of the arteries of their limbs. The several subjects are exhibited in annexed figures. The effect of this peculiar disposition of the arteries, in the limbs of these slow-moving quadrupeds, will be that of retarding the velocity of the blood, passing into the muscles of the limbs. 'It may be difficult to determine, (says Mr. C.) whether the slow movement of the blood sent to these muscles be a subordinate convenience to other primary causes of their slow contraction, or whether it be of itself the immediate and principal cause.' He informs us that he has not met with any arrangement of blood-vessels analogous to those which he has described, except in the carotid artery of the lion; and he suggests that this peculiarity may be subservient 'to the long continued exertion of the muscles of his jaws, whilst holding a powerful animal, such as a horse or buffalo, and thus enable him to retain his prey, until it is wearied out by ineffectual struggles.'

This volume contains, as usual, an abstract of Mr. Barker's register of the barometer, thermometer, and rain for the year 1798; and the meteorological journal of the Royal Society for the year 1799.

Re.s.

ART. VI. *A Synopsis of Husbandry.* Being cursory Observations in the several Branches of Rural Œconomy. Adduced from a long and practical Experience in a Farm of considerable Extent. By John Banister, Gent. of Horton-Kirby in Kent. 8vo. pp. 471. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

CICERO, in his celebrated dialogue on Old Age, makes the elder Cato, the chief interlocutor, thus speak of the agricultural life: "*Venio ad voluptates agricolarum, quibus ego incredibiliter delector: quæ nec ullâ impediuntur senectute, et mihi ad sapientis*

sapientis vitam proxime videntur accedere." This might pass as the remark of a philosophic and sentimental farmer: but the experienced practical agriculturist knows that his profession ought not to be painted in the most captivating colours; that, though, as being conducive to health and virtue, it appertains to the life of a wise man, it is full of care and trouble; and that false notions of it have induced many persons to engage in it, until it has finally proved their ruin. Mr. Banister tells us that he has been a farmer during thirty years: but he does not endeavour to make us, like old Cato, violently enamoured of agriculture, by exhibiting fascinating romantic views of it, and by representing the facility with which a farm may be conducted:—he would rather discourage us from such an undertaking, unless we are disposed to give our whole time and attention to it. There is so much truth in what he advances on this head, and his observations are of so much importance in guarding against a rock on which many fortunes have been shipwrecked, that we consider ourselves as discharging a duty to the public by faithfully transcribing them:

'The practice of husbandry hath of late years been considered as a task of the utmost facility, and many gentlemen have imagined that a plentiful fortune, with a moderate share of abilities, were all the requisites to be sought after in the formation of a complete farmer. That as the most laborious part of the business is to be transacted by servants, the master himself can have little else to do, but to indulge his natural taste for a country life, by following the sports of the chace, and sacrificing his evening hours to convivial joys and bacchanalian festivity. A person who embarks in the farming business with these ideas, conceives, that the management of it need give him little uneasiness, since the whole process is pointed out with so much perspicuity by Tull, Ellis, and the rest of the numerous class of writers on that subject, whose books he hath so often read over with delight: by an attention to these rules, he imagines he shall readily outstrip the neighbouring farmers in agricultural knowledge: that whilst they are contented to jog on in the old beaten track, and with the utmost industry and frugality can obtain only moderate crops, and a decent livelihood; himself will boldly launch into those schemes recommended by his favourite authors, which, he doubts not, will in a few years insure to him an ample fortune, and by raising his reputation in the art to the highest pitch, invite others of the profession to follow his example; and this increase of knowledge, and consequent improvement of his fortune, he supposes may be easily attained, without either breaking his peace of mind by care and anxiety, (the usual attendants on the industrious,) or wearing out his corporeal strength by toil and labour, too often, alas! the only fruits which the husbandman gathers, and the reward of a long life passed in this employment. But our young farmer (happy in the ideal fertility of his land, and his superior skill over his neighbours) anticipates

anticipates none of the evils of life; and although he daily perceives a visible diminution in his purse, yet he parts with his money without regret, consoling himself with the thoughts of the ample interest he is to receive for it, and anxiously expecting the approach of harvest, which is to bless his longing eyes with overflowing cornucopias and a tenfold increase. Persuaded of the truth of every proposition advanced in his favourite writers, he implicitly adopts all the idle and expensive schemes that he finds offered in their books, and is amazed to behold a backwardness in the rest of the profession to follow his example. But, alas! all his airy visions soon pass away, and by the time he has spent a twelvemonth in the profession, he finds that he has been pursuing a phantom, and hunting a will o'-th'-wisp, that has bewildered him within the most intricate mazes, and led him into a quagmire, whence he will find it no easy task to extricate himself; and awakening from his pleasing delusion, he is at length convinced, that the many schemes held forth in the books which had hitherto regulated his conduct, were built upon a sandy foundation; and that although they appeared to him very amusing in the closet, yet in the field they were impracticable: that so far from raising larger crops than his neighbours, his own returns fall infinitely short of theirs; and his barn being quickly emptied, he is again constrained to have recourse to his (now, alas!) almost-exhausted coffers, to supply the various demands which are continually made on him, by the wheeler, the blacksmith, and those other numerous creditors, his servants; all of whom press forward to take advantage of his ignorance and supine neglect; whilst his clamourous landlord is importunate for his rent, and, at the time when he expected to have amassed his thousands, this deluded man perceives himself on the brink of destruction, and derided by those people, who (as he fondly imagined) would have relinquished the method handed down to them by their ancestors, to have adopted his visionary and romantic projects.'

When the gay young man, or the literary bookworm, is incited to engage in the business of a farm, by the vast profit which appears from a calculation on paper to be the unavoidable result of such an undertaking, he rarely reflects on the importance of unremitting assiduity, and on the loss which he may suffer from the dishonesty of servants. The practical farmer, however, knows these facts; and the latter in particular is stated by Mr. B. as a farther warning to indolent and pleasurable agriculturists.

'Though frugality and good management be necessary in every station of life, yet in this of husbandry they seem to be more particularly required than in any other profession; the husbandman having to do with a set of people, the most likely of any others to take advantage of his imprudence and neglect; I mean the lower class of tradesmen, and country servants: The former, it is well known, are too often men of selfish principles and designing views, and who, without scruple, will make use of every mean and dirty action, which does not fall under the cognizance of the law, to deceive and circum-

vent their credulous and ignorant employer, and are therefore to be guarded against with a watchful eye: as to the servants and labourers who must necessarily be employed in country business, they (being of a race the most low bred and illiterate) do often turn out the most unprincipled and profligate; and though perhaps they may not have attempted the commission of the most atrocious offences; yet in the low arts of deception, the country ploughman is inferior to few; and where this race of domestics find a bad œconomy pursued, they will quickly avail themselves of their master's negligence; and whilst he imagines that he is annually a gainer by his business, he will find himself at length reduced to penury, although perhaps he may not have been sparing of his labour, and his crops may have been very prolific. So necessary is it for the husbandman to watch with circumspection the actions of his servants, and diligently to superintend his day labourers, his task men, and his yearly ploughmen, who will otherwise, all of them in their several stations, make it their daily care to abuse his indolence and easiness of temper, and to profit by his negligence and inattention.'

So far from writing for speculative farmers, this Kentish gentleman rather discourages them from reading his *Synopsis.* This work is divided into four books. The first treats of *Soils* and *Manures*;—the second of *Wheat*, *Barley*, *Oats*, *Beans*, *Pease*, *Tares*, *Rye*, *Turnips*, *Potatoes*, *Rape* and *Buck Wheat*;—the third of *Saintfoine*, *Clover*, *Trefoil*, *Ray Grass*, *Lucerne*, *Woold* and *Hops*;—the 4th of *Green Land*, *Horses*, *Black Cattle*, *Sheep*, *Swine*, *Fences*. Each book is subdivided into several chapters; to which are added Miscellaneous Observations on the Economy necessary to be pursued in the various Departments of Country business; with an Appendix on *Weather*. The whole being closely printed, on a small type, no inconsiderable quantity of matter is included in this volume.

Having given an outline of the contents, (which the author himself should have done, by affixing a *Table* at the beginning, as well as an Index at the end; both of which are omitted;) we shall proceed to notice more particularly the observations which occur in the several subdivisions of the work; not that we can, within the space allotted to this article, minutely follow Mr. B. through the various subjects which he has discussed: but we shall select such specimens as will be sufficient to give the reader an idea of his method and sentiments, and of the general merits of his performance.

Soils he arranges under five heads; clays, gravelly or stoney soil, chalks, sands, and loams; and allotting to each a chapter, he treats of the kind of tillage and management which each requires, and of the manures which are most proper for them. In the culture of a clay soil, for instance, he recommends stout able horses, of the most sturdy breed, to draw single; to use

the swing plow; to fallow up as soon as possible after the wheat season is finished, if the land is to be sown with oats or beans; to give it a summer fallow once in four or five years, preparatory to a wheat crop; and to use chalk*, as of all other dressings the most beneficial to stiff land. He observes that the good clayey soils may be discriminated from those which are sterile, and not worth the trouble of cultivation, by the appearance of the trees, corn, and other vegetables. 'The prosperous growth of the trees and hedges, the flourishing state of the corn, and the verdure of the meadow land, are favourable omens; whilst the stunted appearance of the trees, thin crops of corn and short grass, are strong indications of the poverty of the soil.' This hint is worth the regard of those whom it may concern; and indeed the author's observations on the other kinds of soil, and their mode of treatment, are not less judicious.

In considering the efficacy of manures in the cultivation of the earth, we do not perceive the necessity of investigating the principle or rationale of their operation; nor did we expect that Mr. Banister, after having disclaimed every idea of writing for the speculatist, would undertake to determine this very difficult point. He has, however, turned philosopher, where, relying on his humble professions, we thought to find him a mere practical farmer; and he has decided (p. 40.) that 'nitre is the *primum mobile* of vegetation.'

Wheat, being of all grain the most essential to human sustenance, is the subject of a long chapter in the second book; and, as Mr. B. has deduced his knowlege of its culture from the experience of thirty years, his observations are worthy of attention. Here the reader will be struck on being told, in the outset, that 'in a fruitful year the growth of wheat is much larger than the consumption;' for he cannot but recollect that the general language (and from high authority) has lately been that we have *never* grown enough for our own use; yet, if we go back with Mr. Banister only through half of the years of his stated experience, we shall find that the ports have been open for the exportation of wheat, and, in course, that there is some justification of his assertion;—unless, indeed, it be maintained, in order to cover the operation of other causes, that, within the last five or six years, there has been a most

* Though chalk may be proper for a clay, we are not sure of the propriety of its application, as is afterward recommended, to a gravelly soil, even supposing it to be infested with springs. In this case, it should be first drained, and then good yard dung is the best manure.

enormous increase of population; as some have undertaken to prove.

It is remarked that wheat delights in a strong soil; that it is the most hardy of all grain; that it is observed to be in general most prolific after a frosty winter, and a hot dry summer; that there are two different species of wheat, the smooth or polled, and the rough or bearded; that the former, as producing the finest flour, (Mr. B. spells it *flower*,) is most generally cultivated, and is subdivided into white and red wheats; though, on certain strong wet lands, farmers find their account in sowing the bearded species called *rivets* and *cone* wheat;—and that the quantity of seed on rich land should not exceed 2½ bushels. The author, however, does not decide on the quantity requisite for all soils; which, he says, experience must determine; and here he takes occasion to digress into an abuse of systems of agriculture, and of Mr. Tull, whose schemes he pronounces idle and romantic, and whose drill and horse-hoeing husbandry he condemns. Mr. B. recommends the change of seed, and the feeding of wheat in the spring on strong and fertile lands. On the puzzling subject of *smut* in wheat, he inclines to the opinion that this disease arises from a defect in the seed; which his experiments seem to justify. His remarks on natural fertility, or on what some farmers term *yielding land*, in opposition to that which obtains a forced fertility, manifest practical knowlege, and convey useful information.

'There is this difference between land by nature fertile, and that which has, from a state of poverty, been brought to bear large burthens of straw: for whereas the straw growing on the first mentioned soil, is intrinsically firm and compact, and therefore not often lodged so early as to endanger the crop, and the ears are usually well set and of a considerable length, so that on this land (a rich loam) it is no uncommon circumstance to grow five quarters of wheat per acre without the application of manure, or intervention of a fallow: a chalky or gravelly soil on the contrary, though from good management and by a liberal application of manure, it may be brought to produce a large proportion of straw, so as to exhibit an appearance of a crop of wheat equal to that on the rich land; and though this luxuriancy in the growth of the straw may continue throughout the summer, and the land having been treated in a husbandlike manner, may be free from the incumbrance of poppy and other weeds (the usual produce of a wet summer on these soils); yet will the corn be generally lodged so long before harvest, that the crop will by no means be adequate to the flattering appearance which it made throughout the winter; nor, although it should not be lodged, and the burthen of straw be very large, perhaps nearly equal to that on the loamy soil, yet will the produce be proportionable to the intrinsic nature of the land, and not nearly equal to that on the rich soil; for the dung and tillage which caused the straw to be so very luxuriant, will fail of

producing a length of ear and an increase in the berry; so that if the straw should yield abundantly well, three quarters or three quarters and a half on this land may be accounted a good crop; a plain indication, that although poor land in the hands of a judicious and intelligent husbandman, may be made to produce double the quantity of grain it would have brought if badly managed; yet it can never be rendered equal to the natural fertility of a rich soil.'

Mr. Banister then enumerates the kinds of weeds with which wheat crops are infested; remarks on the effects of weather in harvest; and points out the method of ascertaining the value of samples at market.

Barley, and the other species of grain mentioned in the head title of Book II. are also separately discussed in this judicious Synopsis.

Mr. B. does not encourage the farmer to be very liberal in the cultivation of potatoes; because he conceives that the frequent planting of them is injurious to the fertility of the soil.

The book on Grasses contains many valuable hints respecting their culture: but we must pass it with this slight notice, and refer those who are desirous of cultivating woold, or hops *, to the mass of information here offered to them.

In the last book, which is subdivided into twenty-two chapters, the author treats of upland and lowland meadows;—of marshes for mowing;—of orchard hay and orchard ground;—of pastures;—of marsh land;—of horses—of their diseases, the cholic or gripes, colds, farcy, fevers, grease, staggers, strains, strangles, strangury, vivers or ivers, broken wind, wind galls, worms, and yellows;—of oxen, of cows for butter and for suckling;—of weaning calves;—of cows kept for the immediate profit of their milk;—of the diseases of cows and oxen, as lax or scouring, loss of the cud, yellows, loore or foul, and staling blood;—of sheep;—of suckling house lamb—of grass lambs;—of marsh sheep;—of swine;—of fences live and dead, and ditches.

From the preceding account, it will be seen that this Synopsis is a manual of husbandry, which every one who is entering on the business of farming should be solicitous of consulting. Impressed with a conviction of the importance of economy in country business, Mr. Banister concludes with some particular directions respecting yearly servants and labourers—the stable—the barn—the farming implements—and

* They were first planted in England in 1511; and they were once prohibited by act of parliament as a destructive and noxious weed. The distich says,

"Turkeys, carp, hops, pickerel, and beer,
Came into England all in one year."

the seasons of seed-time and harvest. He writes indeed as an experienced man, and we can recommend his book as a safe and useful publication.

Mo.y.

ART. VII. *General View of the Agriculture of the West Riding of Yorkshire.* Surveyed by Messrs. Rennie, Brown, and Shirreff, 1793. With Observations on the Means of its Improvement, and additional Information since received. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By Robert Brown, Farmer at Markle, near Haddington, Scotland. 8vo. pp. 430. 6s. Boards. Nicol. 1799.

THE survey of this fertile and populous district was executed by the gentlemen named in the title, in the course of five weeks. They were all strangers, and unacquainted with a single individual: but they tell us that, by the recommendation of Sir John Sinclair, they not only obtained ample information, but met with that attention and kindness which manifested the hospitality and liberality of the inhabitants. Why *all* strangers were employed by the Board we are not told *. Though in some respects this circumstance may have its advantages, yet, without the greatest assiduity, a survey so performed is likely to be materially imperfect. It may be observed, however, that the practice of the Board, in circulating copies of the original Reports in the respective counties, to invite the remarks and corrections of intelligent men, previously to their being given to the public at large, must tend in some measure (though not completely) to remove the imperfections incident even to the most careful survey, made by professional men appointed for the purpose. Indeed, it may be fairly presumed that all the General Views, compiled from the returned corrected Reports, still contain a variety of errors and omissions: but we respect them as including a great mass of valuable information; as so many advances towards correct knowlege and general improvement.

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* When these gentlemen proceed to mention *the State of Property, and the Tenures on which it is held*, they confess their inability as strangers to discuss these points with accuracy. Though this may be a matter of no great importance, we are of opinion that they ought to have acquainted the Board with it; and, as it was possible that their insufficiency might manifest itself (which it has done) in other respects *, to have requested that a gentleman or two belonging to the Riding should be associated with them in making the survey. Why not take the necessary steps, in the first instance, to make the report as perfect as possible? Why appoint only strangers to such a work? We ask these questions without doubting the professional ability of the gentlemen employed.

* They could not push the Farmer, they say, on the subject of rent.

The

The West Riding of Yorkshire is stated to be 95 miles in length from east to west, 48 miles in breadth from south to north, and to contain 2450 square miles, or 1,568,000 statute acres. It is divided into nine wapentakes; its climate is on the whole moderate and healthy; and the average gauge of rain, at Sheffield, is 23 inches in a year. Its surface is very irregular, exhibiting every variety of soil; and underneath are found abundance of coal, lime, ironstone, and lead, with some copper. It is rich also in navigable rivers. Its population (according to the best accounts which these reporters could obtain,) is calculated at upwards of 400,000; and the annual expence of the poor is equal to one fifth of the rental. The greatest part of the Riding is freehold; it contains a considerable proportion of small proprietors: but some possess very extensive estates, the incomes from which, we here read with astonishment, 'it is *unnecessary* and *improper* to state.' The absurd timidity of such a declaration, if not absolutely condemned by the Board, ought never to have appeared in a work of this kind. Can the Duke of Norfolk, Earl Fitzwilliam, &c. be afraid of having the size and rent-rolls of their Yorkshire estates known to the public? If such statements were improper, the idea of county surveys ought to be abandoned. What is their utility, if knowlege be *unnecessary* and *improper?*

The *Farm Houses* are stated to be in most cases inconveniently situated, and the husbandmen and labourers are said to be indifferently accommodated: but Lord Hawke, we are informed, has lately erected (the place is not specified) a suite of farm offices, which may serve as a pattern to his neighbours. Small farms prevail, which is considered here as an obstacle to the improvement of the Riding. Supposing them to exist to a *great* extent, it may have this effect: but it ought to be remembered that, were there no small farms, no small agricultural capitals could be employed, and markets could not be so well supplied with the smaller produce of farms. A great agriculturist may deem the profit arising from 50 acres beneath his notice: but it may satisfy a man of more moderate ambition, who may be content to furnish the market with small quantities for small buyers.

No information is conveyed on the subject of *Rent* (the cunning Yorkshire farmers would not let these strangers into that secret); and as to tithes, in consequence of a letter from Sir John Sinclair, the reporters professedly avoid all discussion: dismissing the subject with merely giving it as their opinion, 'that the interest of the country is concerned in having them regulated as soon as possible *.'—A small proportion of the

* In other places, the same idea is suggested.

land in the Riding is let on leases: but three fourths of the farmers are only yearly tenants; a circumstance obviously inimical to agricultural improvement.

In the construction of *Agricultural Instruments*, the West Riding of Yorkshire is very deficient; if we except the threshing machine, which prevails in this district, and of which a very full account is given. These gentlemen strongly recommend the general adoption of it, on the ground of dispatch, and saving of corn and money. Speaking from their own experience, they assert that, by Mr. Meikle's machine, under favourable circumstances, from 40 to 60 bushels of wheat may be threshed and cleaned in one hour; leaving no corn in the straw, which is a very material circumstance.

The chapter on *Gardens* and *Orchards* is very short: but it judiciously recommends that every cottager should have one-sixteenth of an acre for a garden; and it informs us that there is a species of plumb, called the winesour, raised in this district, which sells, when sound, for 21s. per peck; that is, *four guineas per bushel!*

The *Waste Lands* in this district, capable of cultivation, are calculated to amount to 265,000 acres *; and a correspondent, who signs himself W. P. strongly urges their improvement, 'lest we *fight*, and *weave*, and *hammer*, till we have not bread to eat.'

Under the head of *Improvements*, draining, irrigation, and warping, (particularly the latter, where circumstances will allow it,) are recommended.

The chapter on *Live Stock* consists mostly of extracts from the letters of correspondents: but the reporters intersperse their opinions; and they conclude the section on Horses with thus maintaining that they are preferable in agriculture to oxen:

'The very strongest ox will not do the same work as a horse. He cannot be drove at the same step, nor will he work in like manner from day to day. He not only does less labour when employed, but must be refreshed with more rest, or else he would soon turn unfit for work altogether. This of course requires two pair of oxen, to do the work which will be performed by one pair of horses, and nearly the same capital stock will be necessary in both cases. Instead of maintaining two horses, you have four oxen to support, which certainly turns the scale. "Oh," but says the theorist, "a little straw will serve for the ox, whereas your horse cannot live without hay."—Straw for a working ox! very good indeed. If you work him like a horse, he must be maintained like a horse. He must have his hay and his turnips, and possibly his corn also, if he is kept at

* In addition to these, 140,000 are stated to be incapable of improvement, unless by planting.

hard

hard work. That working oxen are not always supported in this manner, we chearfully grant; but how are they wrought? In many places six, eight, even a dozen, are yoked in a team: we here speak of the northern parts of Scotland, where oxen are more generally used than in any part of the island. In a word, oxen cannot be used for dispatch like horses, and, in critical seasons, when there is a necessity for a push, the value of the stock might be lost upon a single crop. The only point in favour of oxen, is their value at the latter end. Here no comparison can be made. Notwithstanding which, we adhere to our first opinion, that this is more than compensated, by the difference betwixt the value of their labour when employed. Indeed the sentiments of the greatest part of practical agriculturists coincide with those we here give, upon this branch of rural œconomy.'

Labour is stated to be high, from the prevalence of manufactures; and a custom also prevails, of giving ploughmen drink twice a-day. This, it is thought, ought to be abolished by a compensation in wages: but, if this refreshment be necessary to the labourer, the master might suffer by giving money instead of it; and if it be unnecessary, it may be taken away without a compensation. The writer contends for the propriety of paying husbandmen their wages partly in kind; and we are of opinion that either this practice should prevail, or that agricultural wages should be regulated by the price of bread-corn: but it seems to be a deviation from this principle, and also to be bad policy, to substitute a commutation for necessary refreshment: since it may be presumed that the money would be saved, and less work be done.

On the subject of Manufactures, we find a long section, from which we shall give a short extract:

'The manufactures of the West Riding are numerous and valuable, and comprehend broad and narrow cloths of all qualities, shalloons, calimancoes, flannels, and every branch of woollen goods. The manufacture of these articles is carried on at Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, Halifax, and Huddersfield, and in the country adjoining to these places, to an astonishing extent. The whole wool of the district is not only wrought up in these manufactures, but immense quantities are also purchased in the conterminous counties for the same purpose.

'While the people in the heart of the district are thus employed in manufacturing woollen goods, those of the southern parts are engaged in carrying on manufactures no less valuable, and fully as important. At Sheffield and its neighbourhood, every kind of cutlery and plated goods are manufactured; and so eminent are the artizans in their different professions, that no other place is able to compete with them in the manufacturing of these articles. Sheffield has been a staple place for knives for more than three hundred years, as may be inferred from Chaucer, who says in his poems,

"A Sheffield whittle bore he in his hose."

And

And Leland observes, that great numbers of smiths and cutlers lived in those parts when he wrote, which was in the reign of Henry VIII.

'Rotherham, in the neighbourhood of Sheffield, is a place famous for iron works, similar to those carried on at Carron, in Scotland. We here saw a part of the stupendous iron bridge lately erected over the river Ware, at Sunderland, which was executed by the Messrs. Walkers, proprietors of these works. The merit and ingenuity of these gentlemen, deserve every mark of public encouragement.

'The establishment of manufactures in the West Riding has been the principal cause of its present wealth. It is difficult to ascertain the period when they were first introduced, but there is reason to suppose, it was about the beginning of the fifteenth century.'

The remainder of the Report we shall leave to speak for itself. As the Survey was confessedly made in haste, and as the statements here made are founded in a great measure on hearsay evidence, we think that the reporters are not sufficiently qualified to suggest the surest means of improving the district. Many of their remarks are judicious, and evince much reflection, as well as practical knowlege: but they had not opportunities for particular observation and inquiry; and blame attaches somewhere for exhibiting so crude and indigested a publication as this is in many respects, as a General View of the West Riding of Yorkshire. County Reporters should be attentive and patient in their investigation, and accurate in their details.

Mo.y.

ART. VIII. *The Favorite Village*, a Poem. By James Hurdis, D.D. Professor of Poetry, Oxford. 4to. pp. 210. Printed at Bishopstone, Sussex, at the Author's own Press. Sold by Johnson, London, price 6s. sewed. 1800.

THE author of this performance here undertakes to celebrate the *pleasures* afforded by his native village, in all seasons of the year; and he has fulfilled his task with that unvarying simplicity of diction, and that peculiar minuteness of description, which characterize his former writings *. The attempt is pleasing, and congenial with true poetical feeling; for the votary of the Muses is at home only in the country:

"*Sordidaque in parvis otia rebus amat.*"

The poem opens with a descriptive view of the village; from which we shall extract the address to the church:

'Say, ancient edifice, thyself with years
Grown grey, how long upon the hill has stood
Thy weather-braving tower, and silent mark'd
The human leaf inconstant bud and fall?

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxxxi. p. 241. and N. S. vol. iii. p. 51. vi. p. 278. xv. p. 311. xviii. p. 96. &c.

The

The generations of deciduous man——
How often hast thou seen them pass away?
How often has thy still surrounding sward
Yawn'd for the fathers of the peopled vale
And closed upon them all? Thy during fane
How often has it shed the dew of grace
On the mute infant, and received him soon
A coffin'd elder silver-lock'd with age?
O tell me, rev'rend structure, what events
Of awful import on the tide of time
Have floated by thee, as the bubble vain?
What armies on that distant hill engaged
To leave those scars of war upon its brow?
What blood was shed, and why? and where sleep now
The wrathful combatants of either host?'

To this we shall add the description of a great rarity, the *Poet's own house:*

'Enough of *painful pleasure.* Now alive,
Thee let me sing, still mansion of my birth.
The swelling instep of the mountain's foot
Above the vale just lifts thee. Thy trim gate,
Thy candid aspect and pale-chimneyed roof
Some eminence bespeak, and mark thee chief
Of the lone hamlet that behind thee squats.
Thou seem'st a bride, and this thy nuptial day,
And these thy mute attendants less attired.
Graceful to them thy fair ingenuous face
And bolder footstep, but not less to thee
Their modest air becoming. Ev'ry roof,
Or farm or cottage, ev'ry tree and shrub,
Pasture and garden plot, which tread thy heel
Descending from the hill, thy charms improve.
I see where Flora her full lap of sweets
Has strewed before thee, prodigally kind.
I mark the wreath laburnum without hand
Weaves for thy brow, the lilac tuft sublime
That shades thy temples, and the nodding flow'rs
Of rose and woodbine which his leaf o'ertop
To screen thine eyelids from the western beam.
Beauty concealed is beauty thrice improved.
And plainness self, if plainness be thy lot,
Is not to be reproved, when nature thus
Adorns deformity with flowery charm.'—

'Alone, of men, dwells here the thoughtful bard.
Here, on the mountain stationed, to the deep,
That proudly thund'ring on his one hand foams,
The lyre's indignant chorus sweeps he now;
Now to the peaceful variegated weald,
That underlies his other, tinkles soft
Descriptive admiration of her charms.

He

He sings her every steeple, farm, and field,
Till, like the prospect, his expiring song,
Mellowed and softened, steals away from sense,
And ill-perceived runs melting into air.'

When the author departs from such familiar sketches, and attempts the grander features of nature, he betrays a want of skill. The following description of a storm at sea might have been composed purposely for the illustration of a new treatise on the *bathos*:

'His ivory tooth unsheathed, his sullen bark,
And fiery look delirious, symptoms all
Of madness imminent! Lo! as we speak,
The wolfish monster kindles into rage!
Enormous mastiff, how he gnaws his chain
And struggles to be free, fast bound by fate,
And never more to be let loose on man!
Aloud he bellows, with indignant paw
Dances upreared, and menaces the foot
Of earth with trembling diffidence protruded.
Lo! the saliva of his deafening tongue
Her pebbled instep stains! his rugged coat
Is whiten'd o'er with foam, wasted amiss
In the vain effort of his hoarse assault!'

This is the very essence of Blackmore, and the resemblance is not closed with this passage; which will be sufficient, however, for our exemplification.—As this species of bad poetry seems to be again raising its head among us, we shall lay before the reader a contrast between the present writer and Thomson, in the view of a winter-storm, where an emulation of Thomson was probably intended:

'At length the long-expected tempest comes,
His ancient phrenzy has the maniac deep
Seized, and with loud reverberating foot
He dances rampant in his thund'ring hall.
His gloomy frown that darkens earth and heaven,
And foamy gnashing jaw, foretel ere long
Madness enormous to ensue. E'en now
He gnaws with keen exasperated tooth
The rock that holds him shorebound to his seat,
Buffets the pier and basis of the cliff,
Seizes the tilting triple-masted bark,
Light as a feather in his pow'rful grasp,
Kindles her sleeping thunder, and enjoys
Her frequent flashes of nocturnal woe.
Wellnigh omnipotent, on the sunk reef,
Where roars the conflict of eternal storm
And wave o'ertumbles wave in foamy fall,
He tosses furious her reluctant crew,
Snatches the quiver from the hand of heaven,

Scatters

Scatters the glaring lightnings o'er their heads,
And pours the forceful thunder-peal around.
Pleased at her fate, he aggravates the storm,
Bellows profound, roars horrible delight,
And bids the billow oft repeat the blow,
Till with unchainable gigantic arm
He thrusts her headlong to the deepmost Hell.'

Let us oppose to this figure of a dancing, whirling, bellowing, thumping demon, fit only for a magic lanthorn, the noble and simple picture of the convulsions of nature, exhibited by the author of the Seasons:

" When from the pallid sky the sun descends,
With many a spot, that o'er his glaring orb
Uncertain wanders, stain'd; red fiery streaks
Begin to flush around. The reeling clouds
Stagger with dizzy poise, as doubting yet
Which master to obey: while rising slow,
Blank, in the leaden-colour'd east, the moon
Wears a wan circle round her blunted horns.
Seen thro' the turbid fluctuating air,
The stars obtuse emit a shivered ray;
Or frequent seem to shoot athwart the gloom,
And long behind them trail the whitening blaze.
Snatch'd in short eddies, plays the wither'd leaf;
And on the flood the dancing feather floats.
With broadened nostrils to the sky up-turn'd,
The conscious heifer snuffs the stormy gale.
Even as the matron, at her nightly task,
With pensive labour draws the flaxen thread,
The wasted taper and the crackling flame
Foretell the blast. But chief the plumy race,
The tenants of the sky, its changes speak.
Retiring from the downs, where all day long
They pick'd their scanty fare, a blackening train
Of clamorous rooks thick urge their weary flight,
And seek the closing shelter of the grove;
Assiduous, in his bower, the wailing owl
Plies his sad song. The cormorant on high
Wheels from the deep, and screams along the land.
Loud shrieks the soaring hern; and with wild wing
The circling sea-fowl cleave the flaky clouds.
Ocean, unequal press'd, with broken tide
And blind commotion heaves; while from the shore,
Eat into caverns by the restless wave,
And forest-rustling mountain comes a voice,
That solemn sounding bids the world prepare.
Then issues forth the storm with sudden burst,
And hurls the whole precipitated air
Down, in a torrent. On the passive main
Descends th' ethereal force, and with strong gust

Turns

Turns from its bottom the discolour'd deep.
Thro' the black night that sits immense around,
Lash'd into foam, the fierce conflicting brine
Seems o'er a thousand raging waves to burn:
Mean-time the mountain-billows, to the clouds
In dreadful tumult swell'd, surge above surge,
Burst into chaos with tremendous roar,
And anchor'd navies from their stations drive,
Wild as the winds across the howling waste
Of mighty waters: now th' inflated wave
Straining they scale, and now impetuous shoot
Into the secret chambers of the deep,
The wintry *Baltick* thundering o'er their head.
Emerging thence again, before the breath
Of full-exerted heaven they wing their course,
And dart on distant coasts; if some sharp rock,
Or shoal insidious break not their career,
And in loose fragments fling them floating round."

We live in times which unfortunately demand the utmost vigilance of criticism, to suppress the growth of false taste; and we are sorry that so respectable a writer as the present Bard should require, by the weight of his authority, the interposition of our censure, to oppose the mischiefs which might ensue from his example. A Professor of Poetry ought, at least, to write verses free from remarkable faults, if he should be unable to reach the higher flights of the Muse; otherwise, what must we expect from his pupils?

The following line contains a violation of accent, which could not have passed unnoticed even in a more finished poem:

'The sight of Winter's súperb ocean left.'—

In p. 109, we meet with an unaccountable barbarism:

'E'en to the *kicksey* vulnerable erst.'—

In the description of the red-breast's visit, the author has again coped with Thomson, and again (we think) he has failed. As we cannot quote the long passage to which we refer, we shall only notice the following clause:

——————'Beneath my chair
Sit *budge*, a *feathery bunch*.'———

We appeal to our readers whether this be a style suited to the dignity not only of this author's literary rank, but of any correct English writer?

Amid these instances of false taste, which we deem it necessary to point out, we meet with examples of a capacity for a purer strain of poetry. Of this number is the following passage, which describes a moonlight evening after a thunder-storm:

'Lo!

'Lo! in the glowing east the cloud sublime
Lifting its arduous and illumin'd head
High above highest earth, a pile superb
Of vapour, wrapping in its smoky skirts
Heav'n's everduring threshold, and the beam
Of day's clear orb resplendent from its folds
Reflecting glorious. With the falling sun
Slow sinks the pomp away, and while his orb
In flaky redness sets, and fills the west
With fiery fragments of disparted cloud,
The last-apparent summit of the storm
The ruddy hue imbibes and sanguine glows;
Till, day withdrawn and the vex'd æther hush'd,
The tempest all subsides and dies away,
And the pure heaven displays an ardent moon
Swimming self-balanc'd through the blue profound.'

Had the poem contained many other lines in this style, our review of it would have worne a different complexion. In addition, however, to other objections, the great predilection of this writer for "*similies unlike*" prevents us from complimenting him highly on his labours. In reading descriptions of the charms of simple nature, it is impossible not to revert to the delicious melody of Thomson and Akenside, that conveys to us the emotions with which those great poets were impressed, with almost undiminished force:—but, in performances like the present, where the objects are in masquerade, where the ocean is *a dog*, and the apple-blossom is *a bride walking home from church**, attention is fatigued without being gratified. We could have been agreeably engaged in attending the worthy Professor in his lounge to the Downs, and even to the church-yard and the saw-pits, had he described them in appropriate terms:—but such is the singularity of his figures, that he seems to have drawn them from the study of Cowley's *Puny*†, instead of from the models of genuine poetry.

We feel real regret in expressing such a general opinion of a composition which exhibits, in many passages, sentiments truly estimable, and in others talents truly poetic: but our duty to the public is paramount to every other consideration.

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* This reminds us of the similies invented for texts of Scripture, which are mentioned by Dr. Echard. Among the rest, he says, there is a text which resembles *a man going to Jericho*.

† See "The Cutter of Coleman Street," in Cowley's Works.

ART. IX. *Select Sermons*, translated from the French of Bossuet, Bishop of Meaux. To which is prefixed an Essay on the Eloquence of the Pulpit in England. 12mo. pp. 85. 3s. sewed. Clarke. 1800.

THE good sense, the liberal spirit, and the worthy views, displayed in the essay prefixed to this work, must prepossess every virtuous mind in favour of the writer. His flowing and highly animated style is less chaste, indeed, than our taste would have dictated: but, when the seeds of excellence, the proofs of industry, and the marks of judgment are so manifest, the hand of criticism should be arrested, and the language of encouragement employed.

The author exhorts our young clergy to infuse into their compositions that life and *unction* which so much distinguished, in times past, the sermons of our neighbours. Few will dispute the propriety of this recommendation within due limits; and though we take no pleasure in arraigning the times, and have no propensity that is gratified by gloomy pictures of them, yet we think that we are warranted in saying that there never was a period in which new aids to virtue, and new supports to religion, could be more seasonably introduced.

The brief character of the generality of English sermons, here given, is but too well drawn: 'to borrow an illustration from sculpture, an English sermon may be said to be compared to the statue of a correct but unimpassioned artist: the form displays an apt proportion of parts; but no soul warms, awakens, inspirits the dead marble.'

The following observations well deserve serious attention from candidates for orders:

'Let the young Ecclesiatic, while he stands on the threshold of the sanctuary, undergo a self-examination: if the silent, but heartfelt invitation, if the lonely whispering voice of predilection, do not prompt him to ascend the seat of the preacher; if an enthusiastic ardour does not elevate him when he is commenting upon the sacred text; if he carries to his holy task, a supine reluctance; he may rest assured, that eloquent Nature has not predestined him to occupy a place among the small number of her elect; that she has not kindled for him the sacred flame; and that to him these words of Danté may be applied:

A cui natura,
Non scaldo ferro mai, ne batte ancude.

'But, if the clerical student is conscious that Nature has imprinted on his mind a peculiar bias; if, amidst the claims of active life, she urges his power to one peculiar aim; if, deeply affected with the beauties of profane eloquence, he glows with an enthusiasm till then unknown at the energy of sacred oratory; if an emulative fire kindles

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in his breast at the recollection of our church-worthies, the spiritual founders, and the successive propagators of the establishment, those immoveable columns, which upheld amidst the bursting tempest the sacred roof! if, stealing from the haunts of man, he invocates the Holy Spirit to descend from above, exuberant of grace, and rich in his sevenfold energy; if the sacred fountain of tears lodged in the recesses of the soul, is ready, at Nature's call, to overflow with affectionate effusion: these indications testify that he is designated by Religion to the office of the sublimest import, the dispensation of her holy word.'

The account, here subjoined, of one of those sermons which, in the course of the last spring, excited such eminent attention in London, will add to the wish already so generally felt, that they may be made public:

'In St. James's Church, on the seventh of last month, (March, 1800,) I heard a subject of this nature treated in the most luminous and happy manner: the subject of the historic discourse was the decapitation of St. John the Baptist. The eloquent Prelate drew with a masterly hand, the characters of all the personages concerned in that drama. The glowing zeal and undaunted courage of the Baptist, the vindictive spirit that reigned in the bosom of Herodias, were displayed in the most striking point of view. In the delineation of the character of the young woman, compassion softened the strain of the Orator, the timid nature of the daughter was vividly contrasted with the imperious command of the mother, and with a lenient hand he flung over the part the daughter acted in this tragedy, the veil of filial obedience. But on Herod, the sacred Orator poured the full torrent of his indignant zeal, and pointed out, in the most convincing, energetic language, that his adulterous intercourse with Herodias was the cause, at first imperceptible, that led him from step to step to the completion of the crime of murder. He then noticed the frequency of divorces, which indicated an alarming dissolution of manners, and which he awfully represented as sufficient to awaken the divine forbearance, and call down the vengeance of Heaven on this country.'

The essay concludes with the following novel proposal:

'The new Royal Institute proclaims the liberality of modern patronage; why might not a fund be established for the purpose of awakening an emulative disposition in the rising race of preachers, and of calling forth dormant and inactive capacities? Several persons of the most enlightened discernment, with whom I have conversed upon this subject, concur with me in thinking that an endowment of the nature I am suggesting would be productive of the most salutary and early effects: Sacred Eloquence would assume the honours to which she would then be entitled, and take the lead in the procession of talents.'

The admirers of the masterly Bossuet are much indebted to the author of this tract, (whom we understand to be Mr. Jerningham,)

ham,) for the spirited translation of some of his animated discourses, which follows the *Essay* just noticed; and they already owe him thanks for a former selection from this celebrated writer, mentioned in our last volume, p. 445. We need not now enlarge on this subject; nor will many extracts from these compositions be expected from us: but we cannot refrain from making one or two quotations.

The following impressive address occurs in a sermon preached before Louis XIV.

'While your Majesty looks down from that eminence to which Providence has raised you; while you behold all your flourishing provinces reaping the harvest of happiness, and enjoying the blessings of peace; while you behold your throne encompassed with the affections of a loyal people, what have you to fear? where is that enemy who can injure your felicity? Yes, Sir! there is an enemy who can injure your felicity; that enemy is yourself; that enemy is the situation you adorn; that enemy is the glory which encircles you! It is no easy task to submit to the rule that seems to submit to us. Where is the canopy of sufficient texture to screen you from the penetrating and scorching beams of unbounded prosperity?'

The subsequent eloquent passage is taken from a sermon on the crucifixion:

'Religious truth was exiled from the earth, and idolatry sat brooding over the moral world. The Egyptians, the fathers of philosophy, the Grecians, the inventors of the fine arts, the Romans, the conquerors of the universe, were all unfortunately celebrated for the perversion of religious worship, for the gross errors they admitted into their belief, and the indignities they offered to the true religion. Minerals, vegetables, animals, the elements became objects of adoration; even abstract visionary forms, such as fevers and distempers, received the honours of deification; and to the most infamous vices, and dissolute passions, altars were erected. The world, which God had made to manifest his power, seemed to have become a temple of idols, where every thing was god but God himself!

'The mystery of the crucifixion was the remedy the Almighty ordained for this universal idolatry. He knew the mind of man, and knew that it was not by reasoning an error must be destroyed, which reasoning had not established. Idolatry prevailed by the suppression of reason, by suffering the senses to predominate, which are apt to clothe every thing with the qualities with which they are affected. Men gave the Divinity their own figure, and attributed to him their vices and passions. Reasoning had no share in so brutal an error. It was a subversion of reason, a delirium, a phrensy. Argue with a phrenetic person, you do but the more provoke him, and render the distemper incurable. Neither will reasoning cure the delirium of idolatry. What has learned antiquity gained by her elaborate discourses? her reasonings so artfully framed? Did Plato, with that eloquence which was styled divine, overthrow one single altar where those monstrous divinities were worshipped? Experience has shewn that the overthrow

overthrow of idolatry could not be the work of reason alone. Far from committing to human wisdom the cure of such a malady, God completed its confusion by the mystery of the cross. Idolatry (if rightly understood) took its rise from that profound self-attachment inherent in our nature. Thus it was that the Pagan mythology teemed with deities who were subject to human passions, weaknesses, and vices. When the mysterious cross displayed to the world an agonizing Redeemer; incredulity exclaimed it was *foolishness!* But the darkening sun, nature convulsed, the dead arising from their graves, said it was wisdom!'

We think that, from these specimens, the English reader will wish to be made farther acquainted with the compositions of this great ornament of the Gallican church; the ablest advocate of the catholic cause, and one of the finest writers whom modern times have produced.

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Art. X. *Observations on Mr. Simmons's Detection*, &c. &c. Part Second. By John Hull, M. D. 8vo. pp. 473. 9s. sewed. Bickerstaff. 1800.

The first part of this work was summarily noticed, in our Review for October 1799, p. 234, as an intemperate publication, which added nothing to our knowlege of the subject in dispute. In this large sequel, the author has undertaken to answer several objections which have been advanced against the Cæsarean operation, and to give a more general statement of the cases in which it has been employed. On this occasion, his attack is principally directed against Dr. Osborn, whose success with the crotchet has given such a shock to the defenders of the Cæsarean section:—some observations are also levelled at our criticisms.

Dr. Osborn's celebrated crotchet-case stands so directly in the way of the contested operation, that the present author is reduced to the necessity of denying the accuracy of Dr. O's statement of the facts. This is a very convenient mode of removing a difficulty, when it can be adopted: but we apprehend that Dr. Osborn's character must place him far above the suspicion of either inventing or suppressing any material circumstance, even if the event of the case had been as unsuccessful as it was remarkably happy. If any medical man should doubt the truth of the facts, because he despairs of succeeding under similar circumstances, he only pays an involuntary tribute to Dr. Osborn's dexterity and perseverance.

We shall pass over a large portion of disputatious matter, till we arrive at Dr. H.'s strange assertion, 'that the life of the *fœtus in utero* is of more value to society than that of the mother!' (p. 135.) In this part of his book, the Doctor has most angrily attacked Dr. Osborn's very rational position, that the

loss of existence is comparatively trifling to a being like the *fœtus in utero*, without ideas, without appetites or desires, and probably possessing very little sensation. The fœtus, before birth, may be considered as an animal in a torpid state, but deprived of respiration, and exerting a very partial action of the heart and arteries. To compare this vegetating existence with a Being in the full possession of animal and mental power is erroneous in the extreme. Whatever advantage the author may suppose he has gained over particular expressions of Dr. Osborn, we think that Dr. H. is totally wrong in the general argument.—To illustrate his reasoning, Dr. Hull has stated a case, which we shall extract for the amusement of the reader:

'Supposing all the females of one generation inhabiting an island, unknown to, and, consequently, totally unconnected with any other nation, to have their *pelves* so extremely distorted as to render it impossible for any of them to be delivered, unless by employing the crotchet, in which case all the children would be destroyed, but most of the mothers preserved, or by performing the Cesarean operation, in which case nearly all the children might be preserved, but many of the mothers would lose their lives, it is evident that this island would be completely depopulated on the death of the present generation, if the former mode of delivery were universally adopted; and that the population of the island might reasonably be expected to be supported, if the latter operation were, in every instance, had recourse to; and, therefore, the interests of that community would require, that the preference should be given to the Cesarean section.'

To make this supposition complete, we must beg leave to add that, if a supporter of Dr. H.'s opinions were to attend all the women thus deformed, and, operating on them, were to deliver each of a dead child; and if the mothers afterward perished by the usual result of the Cæsarean operation, in the course of a few hours; the depopulation of the island would become physically certain: not even a Cæsarean Operator would be left;—like that sanguinary tragedian, who declared that not a candle-snuffer should survive the fifth act of his play.

Perhaps we may be allowed to untie this Gordian knot formed by Dr. Hull; what if a practitioner, possessed of inventive talents, should descend on this unfortunate crooked island, and should propose the method of exciting premature delivery, which has been so fully established by the experience of Mr. Barlow of Bolton *? The horrible dilemma of Dr. Hull would not only be thus avoided, but even the use of the crotchet would be superseded, by an act which the parliament would undoubtedly pass, to rescue distorted females from the merciless hands of practitioners on the obsolete plan.

* We shall soon give an account of this plan.

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The author has collected, in the form of tables, a view of most of the cases in which the Cæsarean operation has been performed: but, as many of them are very ill authenticated, particularly those in which the patients are said to have undergone the operation several times, these tables cannot be regarded as furnishing *data*, on which an accoucheur can safely proceed.

After a long excursion, Dr. Hull returns to the charge against Dr. Osborn. It is really somewhat singular, that Dr. H. should imagine that he understands the case of Eliz. Sherwood, which he never saw, better than the gentleman who delivered her; and his scepticism respecting the recent narrative of a most respectable practitioner forms an extraordinary contrast to the facility with which he has swallowed the legends of Rousset. In this instance, *stat pro ratione voluntas.* For ourselves, we confess that we feel no hesitation in preferring the authority of Dr. Osborn to that of Rousset; whose work may be considered as belonging to the fabulous age of midwifery. Dr. Clarke's authority is also treated very disrespectfully, and (we think) improperly, in p. 398. Indeed he is almost taxed with the publication of a falsehood (p. 399). This mode of defending hypothesis against facts cannot succeed, when the persons whose credit is impeached are at least as well known to the public as their accuser.—The attempt to refute the statements of these gentlemen, by pulling the skull of a fœtus through a hole in a board, may excite the reader's mirth, but will not convince his judgment.

As Dr. Hull, then, has not been able to produce any fresh instance of success in this operation, we conceive that our opinion of its fatality cannot be retracted. It appears to us that it would be highly blameable in any practitioner to venture again on the performance of the Cæsarean section, from the evidence at present before the public; and if our authority be of any weight in the dispute, we shall certainly discourage the operation, unless some facts of a different nature from any that have yet been presented shall be produced by its partizans.

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Art. XI. *The History of the Anglo-Saxons*, from their first Appearance above the Elbe, to the Death of Egbert; with a Map of their antient Territory. By Sh. Turner. 8vo. pp. 400. 7s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

The early history of our Saxon ancestors is as deeply immersed in darkness as that of the many other nations of the antient and modern world, whom this obscurity has tempted to claim improbable and fabulous antiquity; and the writers

of Saxon story have not neglected to avail themselves of the opportunity, to dignify or to burlesque their subject by substituting the creations of fancy for historic results. Like those whose fabulous tales of Egyptian, Chinese, and Indian antiquity excite the smile of contempt from philosophy and reason, the authors who have undertaken to treat of the origin of the Saxons have affected to trace them to times in which they *could not* have existed:—a few only have been contented with following them to within a few centuries of the flood:—many ascend in the pursuit to the grandsons of Noah;—while others insist on regarding them as his immediate offspring.

It is of little importance, at this day, who might have been the progenitors of the antient Saxons; or within what degree of consanguinity they were related to Adam. It is therefore a waste of erudition and sagacity, to employ those qualifications in refuting the fables which have been devised to support hypotheses on that subject:—but it is certainly of moment to investigate and ascertain the real history of that people; inasmuch as their laws, their institutions, and their language have no slight connexion with and influence on the manners, institutions, and language of England, at the present time. The work before us, then, on this account, claims respectful attention.

In treating of Saxon history, Mr. Turner has had several predecessors:—but he says that 'the inattentive rapidity with which our most esteemed writers have run over this part of our history' left it still a promising field for learned industry. In his opinion, 'that period of the Anglo-Saxon history, which preceded the invasion of England, was worthy of greater attention than had yet been bestowed on it; not only because to contemplate the infancy of celebrated nations is among the most pleasing occupations of human curiosity, but because it is peculiarly important to us, the posterity of the Anglo-Saxons, to know as much as possible of our continental ancestors.' He therefore has condensed into the first book of the work all the information that could be collected on this point; and he brings down their history to the middle of the fifth century, when they invaded Britain.—In the second and concluding book, he relates that part of their history which contains their transactions in Britain, until the invasion by the Danes in the year 835.

Having dismissed those fanciful hypotheses which throw an air of ridicule on the claims of Saxon antiquity, Mr. Turner proceeds to offer some remarks of his own on the same subject; resting certainly on a more rational foundation:

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'The languages which prevail in Europe seem to be the ramifications of three principal languages, in which the ancient inhabitants of Europe unquestionably conversed. These original instruments of human conversation, in the western and northern regions of the world, have been denominated the Celtic, the Gothic, and the Sclavonic.

'Of the Celtic the branches were the Ancient British, the Erse, the Irish, the Cornish, the Armorican, and the Manks: a visible similarity of structure and of words, in the opinion of many, connects these together. They differ, as all dialects differ in countries separated from each other, maintaining intercourse with other nations, and invaded by various enemies with fluctuating fortune; but philologers have classed them under one and the same genus.

'Another collection of languages, whose affinity is apparent and undisputed, has been arranged under the term Gothic. It consists of the ancient Saxon, and its children or cousins, the English, the Lowland Scotch, the Frisic, and the Belgic: it contains also the Franco-Theotisc and its descendants, the German, the Suabian, and the Swiss: it also comprizes the Icelandic, the Norse, the Danish, the Swedish, and the Orkneyan. Undoubted monuments of the ancient British, the Saxon, and the Franco-Theotisc, in the state which they preserved before the ninth century, still remain for our examination. Many compositions of the old Icelandic, of the eleventh and preceding centuries, are also in being, from which every student of language can satisfy himself that the Celtic and the Gothic ought in none of their branches to be confounded with each other.

'The Sclavonic is a genus of languages which every one would separate from the preceding. The present Russian has been thought to be the most faithful specimen of the original Sclavonic. The Poles, the Bohemians, the Dalmatians, the Croatians, the Bulgarians, Carinthians, Moravians, and some other tribes adjacent, formerly used its various dialects. It prevailed in those parts of Europe where the antients placed the Sarmatæ. The numerous tribes who spoke the Sclavonic preserved their ancient name of Venedi long after their invasion of Germany, in the fifth or sixth century, though they were also called Slavi. Their successes enabled them to reach the Saxons and the Francs, but their conquests were terminated by the opposition of Charlemagne, and their incessant civil feuds.'

'The incontrovertible fact of the existence in ancient Europe of at least three genera of languages, strongly distinguished from each other, conducts us safely to the conclusion, that the collections of nations who spoke them must have also differed in the chronology of their origin. As the Celtic tribes were found in the most western extremities of Europe, it is reasonable to infer that they visited it earlier than the others: so the Sclavonic people, residing about its eastern boundaries, may be fairly considered as the latest settlers. The Gothic states, from their position, claim justly an intermediate date. As they advanced westwards, the Celtæ retired before them. In the days of Cæsar, one of the Gothic tribes had even penetrated into Britain and Gaul, if not into Ireland. As the ramifications of the Goths spread towards the Germanic Ocean, the Sclavonic hordes flowed after them from Asia. The Saxon was one of the Gothic

states, and it was as far west as the Elbe in the days of Ptolemy. The Saxons were therefore, in all likelihood, as ancient visitors of Europe as the Belgæ, the Germans, or any other Gothic tribe. Their situation seems to indicate that they moved among the foremost columns of the vast Gothic emigration; but the particular date of their arrival on the Elbe, or their particular derivation, it is impossible to prove, and therefore unprofitable to discuss.'

We shall make one more extract from this volume, by quoting the author's view of the state of Europe at the commencement of the 9th century:

'When Egbert attained the crown of Wessex, the most remarkable powers in Europe were the Northmen, the Francs, the Saracens, and the Pope.

'As the Northmen are essentially connected with the next period of our history, we will postpone our view of their situation until we reach the era of their most distinguished activity.

'In the beginning of the ninth century the empire of the Francs, produced and sustained by the genius of Charlemagne, almost monopolized the map of Europe. At the close of the fifth century, Clovis laid the foundation of the stupendous edifice. Before his reign, which commenced in 482, the Francs, like the Saxons during the Anglo-Saxon octarchy, had been separated into many independant governments. Clovis, the ruler of the Salian Francs, inherited only the island of the Batavians, and the ancient dioceses of Tournay and Arras. He surprised his age by a display of military energy and conduct, which not only broke the sceptres of every Francic sovereign, but also expelled from Gaul the Roman commander, who had retained Soissons, Rheims, Troyes, Beavais, and Amiens. With that success which superior talents usually command, Clovis extended his dominions, in 493, to the Seine, and in the next year to the Loire. The modern Alsace and Lorraine, with their adjacencies, were conquered from the Alemanni, and after a life of victory, he died in 511, presenting to the astonished world a compact monarchy of power, which from the Rhine reached to the Loire, and even stretched in parts to the Garonne and the Pyrenees.

'He left this vast territory divided between his four sons, who established the capitals of their different kingdoms at Rheims or Metz, Orleans, Paris, and Soissons; and although these princes and their successors, like all rivals in power, differed between themselves, and experienced various successes against each other, yet under their governments, whether united or discordant, the dominion of the Francs was on all sides enlarged. In Germany to their victorious sceptre Thuringia, including even Magdeburg, Helmstadt, and the south part of Franconia, and sometimes Bavaria, were subjected. In Gaul they obtained Burgundy, Provence, and whatever the Ostro-Goths had enjoyed between the Alps, the Rhone, and the Mediterranean, with part of Rætia; part of Spain was also wrested from the Visi-Goths. This enormous empire became united under one master in Clotarius the first, the surviving son of Clovis, in 558. What his children

children shared, the sword of the second Clotarius compelled again into one monarchy, in the possession of which he died in 628.

'After this period the empire of the Francs exhibited the phenomenon of the minister of the crown gradually acquiring an authority, which at last subverted the race of Clovis, and placed a new dynasty on the Francic throne. The sovereigns became dependents on the maires de palais their servants; weak princes, civil wars, and minorities, produced the spectacle so unusual in the western world. The great abilities of Pepin, the maire de palais of Austrasia in 687, who obtained the title of dux et princeps Francorum, and of his son Charles Martel, who deserves our blessings, as the hero selected by Providence to save Europe from a Mahomedan yoke, made the usurpations popular among the Francs. He died in 741. His sons divided his authority, but Pepin, the most fortunate or most worthy of the two, obtained the whole authority in 747, when his brother sought the cloister. In 752 his nominal sovereign was deposed, and the crown of France was placed on the head of Pepin.

'Pepin, the first maire de palais, who had ventured on the throne, died in 768. He left two sons, but his eldest, the renowned Charlemagne, soon acquired the united kingdom of the Francs, which for years he laboured to augment with a success atchieved by few. His campaigns were almost every where prosperous. In Italy he destroyed the kingdom of the Lombards; after a struggle of thirty-three years he reduced the Saxons; he conquered the prince who assumed the kingdom of Bavaria; he wrested part of Spain from the Saracens, and after a very perilous warfare he subdued the Huns and Avari, the modern Austrians and Hungarians. At length his powerful empire, from east to west, extended from the Ebro to the Vistula or the Elbe, and from north to south, from the dutchy of Beneventum to the Eyder. Possessed of the power which arose from this gigantic dominion, he died in 814.

'In the seventh century a man had arisen in Arabia, gifted with the ability to occasion an awful revolution in the mind and kingdoms of mankind. His disciples assailed society in Asia and Africa with the sword of irresistible enthusiasm. Religion and many governments fell victims to their martial and mental fury. Stimulated by unparalleled success to new enterprize, Europe, the last refuge of Christianity and of knowledge, was menaced by their battalions. In 713 Spain was conquered, and the victorious Musa meditated to obtain by his fanatic Saracens the kingdom of the Francs, Italy, and Germany. To atchieve this monstrous scheme they invaded France in 721, and in 732 seemed about to gratify their ambition, under the valiant Abderame, when Charles Martel fought the battle of the civilized world. Six days the fortune of man was in suspense; on the seventh his good genius triumphed; the Arabs experienced a ruinous defeat; they never resumed the conquest of Gaul; but they continued in the occupation of Spain.

'The papal power demands a momentary glance, because at this period it consummated its separation from the eastern empire, established its influence over the kings of Europe by the right which it assumed and exercised of conferring the dignity of emperor, and received

ceived from the policy or bounty of Charlemagne great territorial accessions. In the year 800, at the festival of Christmas, Charlemagne received the crown of empire from pope Leo the third, and was hailed as the pious Augustus, the great and pacific emperor of the Romans. Charlemagne had already, in 774, confirmed to the pope the gift of his father Pepin. This prince had presented to the Roman pontiff the exarchate of Ravenna, which he had conquered from the Lombards, the Marquisate of Ancona, and the cities of Bologna, Mantua, Cesenna, Modena, Regio, Parma, Piacenza, Ferrara, and Farnese. Charlemagne ratified and secured to the pope this splendid acquisition, and added the island of Corfu, the river of Genoa, the Upper Tuscany, the state of Urbino, and some other places. Thus the bishop of Rome was exalted from a spiritual dominion to territorial sovereignty. Power and revenue accrued to him from a domestic principality; he came to rank among temporal princes, and his authority continued to augment until it endangered the permanency of every potentate.

'Thus all the western regions of Europe were, in the year 800, possessed by four unequal states, but all of prime importance. The day of the Saracens had passed. The preponderance of Charlemagne and his successors effectually confined them to Spain; but they had been terrible, and if their neighbours had been weak, would still have been the lords of the world. Charlemagne was now the colossus which was annihilating the independance of Europe; but his grandeur was the result of his personal talents, and faded after his departure, until at length Germany was separated from France. The Northmen soon burst in terror from their lakes and marshes, and during the ninth century the infant civilization of Europe was trembling on the precipice of destruction. With slower but as fatal success the papal empire extended its poisoning influence over the noblest states of the western world; knowledge and religion withered under its debasing sway, and a long night of ignorance and vice, perpetuated by its tyranny, enveloped the human race.'

Without descending to minute criticisms on this work, we shall observe that, in tracing the authenticated facts of Saxon story, in discriminating between the marvellous and the probable, in the arrangement and description of those events which he records, and in depicting those characters which he designs to hold up to admiration or to infamy, Mr. Turner's erudition and judgment maintain a respectable station. Yet there may be instances which manifest a deficiency of patient and deep investigation, and others which betray too implicit a confidence in the authority of some antient writers. His work, however, is dignified by the mien and port of history. His style possesses the excellences and defects which frequently characterize a young writer: it is generally vigorous, animated, and ornamented; often stiff, pompous, and affected.—We learn that a second volume of the work is shortly to appear. Wall.

ART.

ART. XII. *Report of the Commission of Arts to the First Consul Bonaparte, on the Antiquities of Upper Egypt*, and the present State of all the Temples, Palaces, Obelisks, Statues, Tombs, Pyramids, &c. of Philœ, Syene, Thebes, Tentyris, Latopolis, Memphis, Heliopolis, &c. &c. from the Cataracts of the Nile to Cairo: with an accurate Description of the Pictures with which they are decorated, and the Conjectures that may be drawn from them, respecting the Divinities to whom they were consecrated. Translated from the French of Citizen Ripaud, Librarian to the Institute of Egypt. 4to. and 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Debrett. 1800.

IF we experienced some disappointment from the *Memoirs relative to Egypt*, mentioned in our last Number, p. 131. the present Report of M. Ripaud has made us amends by its particular details, and by the promise of still more minute and splendid gratification. Though our attachment to our own country, and our interest in the preservation of its commercial greatness, led us to deprecate the political object of the French in their late Egyptian expedition; yet we ardently hoped, as Bonaparte was accompanied by a considerable number of literary and scientific men, that his temporary possession of a country so celebrated in antient history, and so renowned for its stupendous antiquities, would be productive of much curious information; and that the Members of the Egyptian Institute, enjoying a degree of security and a variety of advantages which no solitary traveller could possibly obtain, would employ them in minutely examining and taking exact admeasurements and drawings of all that is worth notice on the banks of the Nile. This, Europe has a right to expect from the French Literati and Artists. They have enjoyed their Eastern conquest long enough to answer most scientific purposes; and though we shall not be satisfied till we have inspected the maps, plans, elevations, and drawings, taken by them in Egypt, we are induced to believe, from the present Report of the Librarian to the Institute, that they have not been indolent in their department. Indeed, the Memoir of M. Ripaud is so amusing, that we shall be tempted to make considerable extracts from it. Some of his conjectures may be unfounded: the bold assertion respecting the vast antiquity of certain Egyptian structures may be considered as the effect of his deistical prepossessions: he may have spoken too contemptuously of Norden, when he terms him *timid*, and his views '*insignificant*;' and he may be wrong when he asserts that this respectable traveller '*visited** the island of Phyloe by the light of a lantern;' yet there will remain, in the work before

* It is true that he went to the island in the evening, but he explored it during the next morning.

us, much intrinsic merit. M. Ripauddoes not strike all preceding travellers and geographers prostrate to the earth, that he may drive his car triumphantly over them. He speaks very respectfully of Sicard and D'Anville; and while he mentions the works of Maillet, Vansleb, and Savary, as offering 'nothing that is true and useful,' he applauds *his* countryman Granger, and particularly discriminates *our* countryman Pococke as the most learned of all the Egyptian travellers; pronouncing that his descriptions approach the nearest to the truth. He even apologizes for the deficient information given in the works of former travellers, knowing the difficulties with which they unavoidably struggled.

The French Literati were in Egypt with an army of their own countrymen protecting them; they explored at leisure; they had a travelling library and apparatus; and different individuals were assigned to different departments. The work was thus arranged:

'Encamped near the site of the monuments, each of us engaged in that branch of the work which the habits and study of his life had rendered the most familiar to him: the views taken by Citizens Dutertre, Cécile, and Balsac, faithfully represent the actual state of the temples and palaces. Lepere the architect, and several engineers, have drawn the plans as well as the elevations and sections, with an exactitude, which cannot fail to give a complete and satisfactory idea of them. The basso-relievos and paintings in fresco, which adorn them, have been accurately copied by the young people in the Commission of Arts; the topography of the ancient cities has been executed by the engineers and geographers, while I am occupied with Citizens Fourrier and Cortaz in forming written descriptions, which are to accompany the plans and drawings.'

What a magnificent view of the Antiquities of Egypt must be exhibited by this work, now preparing under the auspices of the Chief Consul! The present Report, which is called an abridged description, is offered to the public rather to excite, than completely to gratify curiosity: but it does more than answer this first object. It informs us that five immense palaces and thirty-five temples still remain; and that twenty of their temples are still seen in a state of as complete preservation as the most modern of our structures. It remarks that there is a generation of monuments, the age of each of which is *triple* that of the most antient states of Europe;—that Egypt was the cradle of architecture;—that the Greeks were copyists, and that the plans of their most elegant temples are taken from the small peripteral temples of the Egyptians;—that 'the taste of Egypt differed from that of Greece and from our own, in bringing together those masses which we have been particularly careful to detach

and insulate; thus at Luxor, in a space of thirty feet, two obelisks are seen of ninety-two feet in height, behind them are two colossal statues of thirty-five feet, and somewhat farther are two moles, whose elevation is fifty-five feet;'—that, though unobserved by preceding travellers, there is a resemblance in the Egyptian columns to the different productions of nature;—that, in two of their temples, the zodiacs which decorate the ceilings represent the state of these heavens at the distance of four thousand eight hundred years;—and that these, together with the astronomical subjects engraven under the porticoes and in the vestibules of their temples, seem to indicate that 'the priests thought that a regard for the sciences was the best preparative for the duties of religion *.'

M. Ripaud thus speaks of the paintings and basso-relievos which decorate the temples of Egypt:

'If the first aspect of a temple creates an animating surprise in the mind, the paintings, which adorn every part of the surface, prolong and extend it. They all relate to the worship of the gods of Egypt; they represent offerings and sacrifices, as well as subjects connected with astronomy and agriculture. In these representations we recollected many of those divinities, of whose existence we had entertained no more than a distant suspicion, and many others concerning whom history has been altogether silent.

'The drawing of the basso-relievos is incorrect, as the lesser members of their architecture are defective. The observation which the Abbé Winckleman made on the first, may be applied to both: "The Egyptians have sacrificed to all the divinities, except the Graces."

'The ornaments are of a fantastic invention, which can have no relation to any thing but the rites of religion, and are very heavy in their execution: they afford no repose to the eye. The drawing of the human figure is sometimes disgusting, while that of animals frequently approaches to perfection.

'Each picture is generally composed of three persons: the divinity to whom the offering is made; the priest who presents it; and a divinity of an inferior order behind the former. Their attitudes are, in general, stiff and constrained; and the artists of this country being ignorant of perspective, were not capable of giving effect to groups of figures. But, with all these defects, the basso-relievos afford pleasure in the view of them, from the interesting subjects which they trace. Besides, though, as an whole, their pictures may be incorrect, the parts which compose them are sometimes executed with the utmost care and precision.'

The Report begins with an account of Philœ, an island near Syene, formerly the boundary of the Roman empire, where the Romans kept a garrison; and it finishes with the Pyramids of Gizé and Heliopolis.

* Do not other representations in the Egyptian temples militate against this sublime view of the religion of antient Egypt?

We

We extract the account of the palace of Karnac:

'This palace may be considered as the habitation of kings; the principal mole is turned towards the Nile, and has an hundred and forty paces in length, by twenty-five of solid breadth. It leads to a court of an hundred and ten paces long, and whose breadth is equal to it. Two rows of six lotus columns, placed in a line with the mole, lead to a portico composed of one hundred and thirty columns, in rows of sixteen deep. In the two middle rows there are six lotus columns; and on each side are seven rows of those of the truncated lotus, which are less elevated than the former; the diameter of the former is eleven, and that of the latter seven, feet.

'The length of this vestibule is seventy-eight paces, and its breadth is the same as that of the mole. It was covered throughout, and received light from windows which had been opened above the lotus columns. The foundations having given way in some parts, several of the columns were prostrate. The fall of the mole which looks to the court, would have drawn after it the whole building, if it had not been constructed with immovable solidity. To this vestibule succeeded a court, where there had been four obelisks, of which only one remains: from this court we passed into another, decorated with two obelisks and twelve colossal figures, in the form of termini, holding the handle of a pot on the breast.

'Two other courts lead to the apartment of the king. In a line with the gates are two saloons of granite, which appear to have been the apartments of state. It is probable, that at the period when Thebes was built, granite was not so much used as it has since been by the Egyptian kings of Memphis, and the Greek sovereigns of Alexandria. To the right and left of these saloons are the apartments of the court. Those of the king and the queen might be distinguished in two chambers, whose gates are of black granite. They did not appear to be more than twelve feet square. The paintings in the corridors which surround the halls of audience, describe the power and wealth of sovereigns. On the walls are sculptured caskets, screens, pearl-necklaces, perfume-pots, strong-boxes, and hoods enriched with precious stones. There are also pictures which represent different ceremonies of initiation; while others display the progress of love.

'At an hundred paces to the east of the palace is a long colonnade that serves as a portico to the buildings which appear to have been occupied by the king's household: they contain a great number of separate apartments; their form is oblong, and their dimensions are above twenty-five feet in length, by fifteen in breadth. They are all decorated with pictures. A gate in a very fine style of architecture, on the eastern side of the palace, and about four hundred paces from the range of buildings which terminates it, led to this part of the royal habitation.

'To the south of the court of obelisks were four moles, which, being in a line with each other, formed on this side the avenue to the great palace. This appears to have been the entrance of the kings of Egypt. The people were admitted no further than the vestibule, supported by the forest of columns, which has been already mentioned.

tioned. The particular audiences were probably given in the halls of granite. The gate of the most southern mole was constructed of granite, or rather perhaps repaired by it, and was approached by an avenue of ninety lions, many of which are in good preservation. Their stature is colossal, and their length about fifteen feet: the interval between them is but ten feet; and they are represented as lying down on a base about three feet high.

'An avenue of sphinxes intersects it at right angles from east to west, and unites with an avenue of rams in the same direction. Opposite the gate of the little palace of Karnac, the latter avenue stretches on to about an hundred fathom from that of Luxor, of which it appears to have been a part.

'In front of each of the moles which lead to the court of obelisks in the great palace, are two and sometimes four colossal figures in stone or in granite. They are either seated in the position of those of Luxor, or standing upright in the action of walking, the arms resting on their sides, and furnished with an inflected poniard.

'The sides of these vast buildings have suffered various accidents, and the interior construction is very defective. Whatever precautions the Egyptians took, in general, to ensure the duration of their monuments, they trusted so much to the quality of the air, which is free from every destructive principle, that they adorned the exterior parts of them with as much care and elegance as they employed for the decoration of the interior masonry.

'To the south, and at two hundred paces from the flank of these moles, is a superb gate, which leads to a small palace, placed on a line with the court of the great palace. This gate, perhaps, is the only piece of Egyptian architecture which would be taken as a model in our day. It is now detached from two moles which flanked it, as they are levelled with the ground. The Egyptian gates in this state are infinitely more beautiful than when they form a part of these buildings, whose high elevation, by contracting the space they ought to occupy, and overwhelming them, as it were, by disproportions, destroys their effect. The cornice which terminates them, resembles, in its inflexion, the waving branch of the palm-tree: the distinct parts are executed with infinite care. It is covered with pictures both within and without, and it leads to the small palace which has been already mentioned. It consists of fifteen apartments, lighted sparingly by windows, which are never seen in the temples. A double range of rams leads to the south gate, of the same proportion as the lions situated before the gate of granite.'

To protract the entertainment of our readers, though our limits scarcely justify the length to which the article will be extended, we shall now add the description of the sepulchres of Thebes:

'The whole of the mountain Libycus, which begins at half a league to the west of the Memnonium, and ends immediately opposite to Medinet-abou, is pierced from its base to three fourths of its elevation with a great number of sepulchral grottos. Those which are nearest the surface of the ground are the most spacious, as well

as

as the most decorated; those which are in the most elevated part of the mountain, are much more rudely contrived and executed; while such as hold the middle place, bear an adjusted proportion of space and ornament. Those which belong to the poor are the most interesting, because they always contain some representation of the arts which flourished, and the trades which were practised, at that epocha. The plan of these grottos is in a great measure the same. A door, opening towards the east, displays a gallery of about twenty feet in length, which is sometimes formed in a straight line, and at other times runs off from the entrance in a right angle: it is indifferently supported by columns or pilasters, of which the number varies from four to ten. At the extremity of the gallery is a well which leads to the catacombs, where the mummies are deposited. The depth of these wells varies from forty to sixty feet, and they are connected with long subterraneous passages, rudely shaped in the rock, which terminate in a chamber of about thirty feet square; whose sides are supported by pilasters, and contain large remains of the mummies. There are evident traces of numerous other subterraneous communications, which probably lead to other chambers, that are at present concealed.

'In the upper gallery are sculptured in basso-relievo, or painted in fresco, a crowd of subjects relating to funeral ceremonies. The most interesting pictures which are seen there, offer a detail of circumstances, connected with the ancient inhabitants of the country. There are represented their first occupations, such as the chase and the fishery: thence we may trace the progress of civilization, in the employments of the sadler, the cartwright, the potter, the money-changer, the husbandman, and in the duties and punishments of military life. Each grotto is adorned with a ceiling painted with subjects of fancy, and whose design is exactly the same as that of the paper-hangings which were fashionable in France about thirty years ago.

'The tombs of the Kings are about six thousand four hundred paces from the river. They have been formed in a narrow valley, in the centre of the mountain Libycus. The ancient way thither is not known, and the spot is now gained by an artificial passage. These sepulchres occupy a large ravine, which is flanked by the bed of a torrent. The plan of one of these tombs will be sufficient to explain the general disposition of the rest.

'Every grot communicates with the valley by a large gate, which opens to a gallery hollowed in the rock: its breadth and height are generally about twelve feet, and its length is twenty paces to the second gate, which opens to another gallery of the same breadth, and twenty-four feet in length. To the right and left of this gallery are chambers of five feet in breadth and ten feet long. There are found paintings of arms; such as hatchets, poniards, curvated sabres, straight swords, lances, javelins, bows, arrows, quivers, coats of mail, shields, implements of husbandry, vases, and trinkets of every kind. The detail of preparing food is also represented.

'It is in one of these chambers where we saw the two harps which had been copied by Bruce. A third gallery succeeds, of the same

same dimensions as the former, and leads to a chamber above the level of the other apartments, which is eighteen feet square. From this chamber is the entrance to a gallery of thirty-four paces in length; there is also an inclining gallery, whose length is twenty-eight paces. At its extremity is a corridor of sixteen paces, leading to a chamber of eleven paces square, which is connected with another of the same size by a gallery of six paces. A square saloon then succeeds, supported by eight pillars: its length is twenty paces, and its breadth twenty. Here is the sarcophagus which contained the mummy of the king. The Romans made some attempts to carry away this sarcophagus from the grotto where it is deposited, they had even tried to level the ground, in order to facilitate its removal: but they very soon renounced the impracticable enterprise.

'To the saloon of the sarcophagus, another apartment succeeds, of twenty-five paces in breadth, and forty in length. The height of the tomb is seven feet, its length eight, and its breadth six: the total length of the gallery is two hundred and twenty-five paces. The tombs of the kings throughout their whole extent are covered with pictures and hieroglyphics; but the greater part are painted in fresco, and represent the most fantastic subjects that can be conceived. There it was that the Romans caught that idea of the grotesque, which formed the principal subject of their compositions during the second and third age of the empire. The researches into Herculaneum have discovered a great number of paintings executed in a similar taste.

'One of the most interesting of these grottos contains a sarcophagus that is still entire and in its place. It slength is sixteen feet, its height twelve, and its breadth six. It still preserves the lid, adorned with the effigy of the king, which is a single block of granite. The astonishment that is felt, on reflecting that this enormous mass was transported to the extremity of a subterraneous passage two hundred paces in length, exceeds all bounds, when it is considered that it was worked upon the place where it remains. What difficulties must have been surmounted, in order to transport a weight of many hundred milliers, across the almost impracticable roads of the mountain?

'Human sacrifices are continually represented.'

There are also a variety of obscene and disgusting representations, not much to the credit of either the delicacy or the virtue of the antient Egyptians.—It is farther added, that 'the sepulchres of the rich are exhausted;'—that 'none of the mummies which are sold by the people of the country are dressed in the envelope, upon which the figure of death was painted;'—that 'many of the mummies have the nails both of the hands and feet gilt;'—and that, though no preceding traveller ever found the manuscripts on papyrus, which the mummies of distinguished persons never failed to inclose, 'the French literati, during their stay in Egypt, have been so fortunate as to discover and preserve eight or ten of these manuscripts entire.' What a treat for the French antiquaries!

Annexed to this report is a letter from M. Derozier the younger, engineer-mineralogist, to his father; which contains farther remarks on Egyptian antiquities, and which concludes with observing that 'the horned serpents, which were among the objects of antient Egyptian adoration, are still very common in that country, by one of which he narrowly escaped being bitten in a grotto at Thebes.'—Prefixed, is a map of Egypt by D'Anville, from the cataracts of the Nile to the Mediterranean. This is a very acceptable addition: but the names of places in it ought to have been made to correspond with those which are given in the report.—Some gallicisms occur in the translation; as, the pillar '*has* so many feet long,' &c. &c.

Mo.y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1800.

ARCHITECTURE.

Art. 13. *A Collection of Plans and Elevations of modern Buildings*, public and private, erected in Great Britain by the most celebrated Architects; engraved in Aqua-tinta, from original Drawings, by George Richardson, Architect. To be completed in 10 Numbers. Imperial Folio. 10s. 6d. each; of which 7 Numbers are published. Taylor, Holborn.

THE *Vitruvius Britannicus* has long been highly valued as affording a collection of the principal buildings in this country: but many years have elapsed since it was formed, and many noble mansions have since arisen. We therefore congratulate the public on the appearance of the present performance; which is intended as a supplement to that production, and which lays before them plans and elevations of the principal modern buildings in this country.

As the peculiar merits of this work cannot well be investigated without a reference to the plates, which our plan does not admit, we must rest contented with announcing so important an undertaking; not doubting that those who are interested, either professionally or from amusement, will be anxious to possess a publication in which will be found the studies of the most celebrated artists of the present day. It is intended to proceed in the regular succession of one number in every six months. When the collection is complete, we may probably take more particular notice of it.

Sam.

Art. 14. *Hints for Dwellings:* consisting of original Designs for Cottages, Farm-houses, Villas, &c. plain and ornamental. With Plans to each: in which strict Attention is paid to unite Convenience and Elegance with Economy. Including some Designs for Town Houses, elegantly engraved in Aqua-tinta, with appropriate Scenery. By D. Laing, Architect and Surveyor. 4to. 34 Plates. 1l. 5s. Boards. Taylor, Holborn. 1800.

A set

A set of useful designs, which, although they do not vie with those in the preceding article for magnitude and richness, yet still attract attention from their more general application to the wants of the greater mass of the public. The author observes,

'Of the plans, I hope the distribution will be found to possess convenience, elegance, and economy. This branch of the architect's profession is the most arduous; and to this point should all the powers of his mind be directed, united to all the intelligence which can be furnished by the employer; for within the house, those comforts and conveniencies will be sought, which shall compensate for all expence and trouble. In the plan, I may be allowed to say, will be shewn the skill, taste, and ingenuity of the artist; here, his address in surmounting difficulties will evince itself; and here the conveniences to be combined and arranged must render the mansion inviting to the master, and convenient to the family: by a good distribution also much space is saved, or applied to useful purposes, and the expences much abridged; and I must repeat that too much care cannot be given to well arranging the plan, suitable to the family, circumstances, and desires of the proprietor: for a proper attention to these circumstances in the outset will prevent much future uneasiness, or alterations which never fail to create expence.'

While a diversity of taste and wants prevails, these publications of studies, uniting talents and attention, afford a variety suited to different inclinations; and we can recommend the present work as one of the best of that kind, to the attention of those who wish to amuse themselves with brick and mortar.

Saun..rs.

EDUCATION.

Art. 15. *The Friend of Mothers:* designed to assist them in their Attempts to instil the Rudiments of Language and Arithmetic, at an early Age, and in a Manner agreeable to their Children. 12mo. 1s. Newbery. 1799.

'This little volume is designed as a prelude to a set of toys for the purpose of *teaching* in *sport:* it is intended at once to explain the manner of using those toys, and to hint to young mothers how they may amuse and instruct their little ones on the same plan, even without such an apparatus. The writer hopes soon to provide a box for the purpose of teaching the rudiments of language in a sportive manner, on a plan the most simple and the least expensive possible: this will be called a *Spelling Box.* The difficulty of getting very diminutive cuts neatly executed has hitherto retarded the appearance of this *beginning* of her scheme: she announces with pleasure, that the *continuation* is in the hands of an engraver: it is to be on the same plan as the *Infant's Delight,* supplying easy and pleasant reading for infants, *as an indulgence.* The whole of the projected method will in time be at the service of such ladies as may choose to adopt the plan. She flatters herself with the hope of affording entertainment and instruction to the various branches of the family, according to their respective age and progress. The infants will find easy reading lessons; those a little older, a dictionary; and children more advanced, an explanation suited to them.'

Such is the account given in a short preface to this performance. From letters, grammar, and arithmetic, with their appropriate engravings, if we rightly understand the lady, we shall proceed to natural history, with its suitable plates: but, as the design is not yet completely executed, we can give only an imperfect view of the plan. We observe many good remarks and directions in the present volume; and though it is chiefly intended to assist instruction *with the apparatus* proposed, we find one chapter designed to render these early lessons not only amusing but improving without this aid. **Hi.**

Art. 16. *Dodici Conversazioni*, &c.; *i. e.* Twelve Conversations, in Italian and French. In which are introduced the most necessary Words and Phrases used in familiar Conversation. By G. Grimani, Language-master. 12mo. pp. 383. 5s. Low, London. 1799.

This appears to be a very useful publication, as the titles of the several conversations will evince; which are as follow:

I. Conversation; between a young Lady and her Woman, on first rising; with her Milliner, and Mantua-maker.

II. Between a Mother, a Son, and a Daughter, at Breakfast.

III. Between a young Lady and her Italian Master.

IV. Between a young Lady and her Music-Master, on the Piano Forte, Singing, and Accompaniment.

V. Between a young Lady and her Dancing-master.

VI. Between a young Lady, her Mother, and Brother, while walking out, making Purchases, and in the Garden.

VII. Between the same Persons, concerning the Sciences, particularly Geography.

VIII. At a Toilette, between a young Lady and her Woman.

IX. General Conversation at Dinner.

X. In a Gallery of Pictures, Drawings, and Engravings: on Mythology: among many young Persons.

XI. At the Playhouse, and Opera.

XII. On different Games at Cards, &c.

As boys at grammar-schools in England learn Greek through the medium of Latin, it seems necessary for students in Italian to learn it in a French Grammar, and to attain the colloquial language of Italy through that of France. There is a greater affinity between two languages so equally derived from Latin, and of which the rules of grammar are the same, than between Italian and any language of Celtic or Teutonic origin.

It is but just to say that these conversations are written so equally well in both languages, that it would not be easy, without the author's Italian name, to determine which was his native idiom.

In speaking of arts and sciences, he seems perfectly well acquainted with their technica. In the IVth Conversation with the Music-master, as much elementary knowlege is displayed in the art, as could be obtained in two or three months from the instructions of a professed teacher; and the technical terms in Italian and French, with the names and import of the several characters in the Gammut, Time-table, and Accompaniment or Thorough-base, will be of great use

in receiving lessons of foreign masters: as such terms of art rarely occur in common reading. The Conversation with the Dancing-master will have its use in French; in which language, young ladies are more likely to receive instructions than in Italian.

The old dialogues of *Veneroni* are now antiquated: but in these, the fashions and manners of the present times are the subjects of conversation. The Dialogue in the Garden furnishes the names of plants, flowers, and fruits; which are likewise seldom found in common reading.

In the first list of Sciences, Theology is omitted, p. 146: but at p. 148, it is enumerated as one of the principal exercises of human intellect. We have in this dialogue definitions of grammatical terms, and indeed the principal technica of all the arts and sciences.

From the Conversation in a Gallery of Painting, Statuary, and Sculpture, a mythological Dictionary may be formed. In the dialogue at the Opera, questions and replies concerning the performance are furnished. In the last Conversation, on different games at Cards, the author seems to have rivalled Hoyle in definitions, and has certainly surpassed him in moral reflections on the evils which gaming engenders in society.

A table of errata is wanting to this volume, in which we observed several typographical errors. The punctuation, also, is deficient throughout. At p. 354, the author, speaking of the amusements of the ante-revolution Venice, (where there is little convenience for walking, and none for riding,) says that, 'in general, the inhabitants have no other amusement than *cards*.' There may have been much play in private: but in public *and* private, music seems to have been more cultivated and patronized there, than in any other city of Europe. There formerly were four *Conservatorios*, or schools for the education of female orphans and natural children; in which music, particularly vocal, was cultivated with greater care, and taught by greater masters, than in any other city of Italy. *

We have dwelt the longer on this little work, because of its singular merit and possible utility. It is arranged in a more alluring form than is given to the dry rules of grammars and the unconnected vocabularies usually annexed to them; and we may venture to say of this book, what has been remarked of Johnson's Dictionary, that, from the happy illustrations and examples which the author has given of the terms which he defines, "in looking for words, we find things." Dr B...y.

Art. 17. *Scelta di Lettere familiari, degli Autori pieù Celebri*, &c. A Collection of familiar Letters, by the most celebrated Authors; for the Use of Students in the Italian Language: with Accents, to mark the Pronunciation of all the doubtful Words. By Leonardo Nardini. 12mo. pp. 264. 3s. Dulau and Co. 1800.

The English public have given considerable encouragement to this method of book-making; and, to say the truth, when selections are conducted with judgment and taste, they cannot fail of being accept-

* See Wright's Travels, and Burney's Musical Tour through France and Italy.

able. They bring together, within a narrow compass, interesting pieces which are generally scattered through many volumes, and afford considerable entertainment at a very moderate price;—no trifling recommendation in these hard times. To the compiler of this little volume of Italian Letters, the praise of judicious discrimination is due; and his collection will be thankfully received by the Italian student who wishes to improve, and to write this elegant language with facility and correctness. Algarotti—Bembo—Bentivoglio—Boccalini—Castiglione—Caro—Fabri—Galileo—Ganganelli—Guarini—Lambertini—Machiavelli—Mascardi—Metastasio—Redi—Tasso—Tolomei—Zanotti, and others, are here laid under contribution; and, when drawing from such rich and various sources, it is no great compliment to the editor to say that this volume is both amusing and instructive. A letter from Ganganelli to a friend, on the subject of travelling in Italy, peculiarly merits those epithets on account of its style, its method of detail, and its reflections.

The accentuation of doubtful words will prove of great use to those who study the Italian language without a preceptor. Mr. Mo.y.

MILITARY *and* NAVAL.

Art. 18. *A Collection of Papers on Naval Architecture*; originally communicated through the Channel of the Wrapper of the European Magazine; in which publication, the further Communications on this Subject will be continued. Vol. II. In Three Parts. 8vo. 11s. Boards. Sewell. 1800.

We have already noticed the first volume, and the first part of the second volume of these papers *. Those contained in the remainder of the volume now published treat of various subjects of marine economy, but principally of improvements in Naval Architecture. As they are not original publications, and as some of them passed in review before us on their first appearance, we shall not enter into an examination of particulars: but we must observe that this collection, of useful though miscellaneous maritime information, promises to be one of the most complete of any hitherto published. Capt. B.

Art. 19. *An Epitome of Military Events.* Translated from the French periodical Work published at Hamburgh. No. X. Illustrated by a Map of Part of the Chain of the Alps and Appenines on the Southern Frontier of Piedmont, and a Plan of the Town and Environs of Coni. 8vo. 2s. Egerton.

The same science, information, impartiality, and regard to the interests of humanity, which so honorably distinguished the preceding numbers of this valuable publication, are not less conspicuous in the present. We have here detailed the interesting particulars of the situations of the respective contending armies, at the conclusion of the last year. - We understand that this work, which is so far superior to all former narratives of the day, comes from the pen of General Dumas; who, if we mistake not, was involved in the proscription of the 18th Fructidor. If the Frenchman now and then appears, we

* See vol. xix. N. S. p. 76.

are

are bound in justice to observe that it is less in the statements of facts, than in the reflections with which these are accompanied; reflections which, however, making due allowances, are equally creditable to the head and heart of the writer. The scenes of carnage which he so well paints; and the skill and activity employed to destroy life, never before equalled, which he so ably describes; are in his hands powerful arguments to induce contending parties to repress their mischievous ambition, to lay aside their implacable resentments, and to bend their minds to conciliation.

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 20. *The Enchanted Plants.* Fables in Verse. 8vo. pp. 93. 5s. Boards. Evans, Pall Mall. 1800.

After the highly finished works which have of late years been given to the world by Dr. Langhorne and Dr. Darwin, on subjects similar to the present, it must not be regarded as matter of surprize if we took up this book with more than our usual fastidiousness. Poetry indeed, and perhaps especially that branch of it which relates to the vegetable kingdom, presents a wide field for fancy, as well as ample scope for the luxuriance of a glowing imagination: but we must repeat, and we repeat it with regret, that we have been so long accustomed to dwell with rapture on the beauties of the two exquisite masters whom we have just mentioned, that we are not altogether able to form a judgment totally unbiassed on this subject.

The present composition, though published anonymously, is generally understood to proceed from the pen of a lady (Mrs. Montolieu) of whose taste and poetical powers the public have already formed a favourable judgment; and we may venture to say that this opinion will not be changed by a perusal of the volume now before us. It is ornamented with an elegant frontispiece engraved by Bartolozzi, and is printed in the same style in which every thing proceeds from the hands of Bensley: but, in stating these circumstances, we mention the most subordinate qualities, and shall proceed immediately to a consideration of the work itself.

The introduction to the fables is very pleasing; and the idea which it contains, of making the Genius of flowers appear, and endow a mortal with the power of hearing them converse, if not entirely new, must at least be allowed to be extremely striking.—The fables, 22 in number, are each appropriated to some passion or affection of the mind; which they for the most part aptly illustrate, considered both as to the execution and the flowers that are chosen. The versification is throughout the whole elegant and harmonious: but the fables are too long to allow us to extract any one for the perusal of our readers. We imagine, however, that they will consider themselves obliged to us for laying before them a few lines taken from the beginning of the last:

'Once on a rock reclined I lay
That o'er the ocean frowned,
Tempests obscured the face of day,
And lightnings glared around.

'Sad sighed the spirit of the storm,
Congenial with my soul;
Like passing hours of various form
I marked the billows roll:

'Some heaved like woes with mighty swell,
And broke with hideous roar,
Some lightly foaming, curled and fell
Like pleasures quickly o'er.

'Between loud peals, by vivid light,
Or when the horizon cleared,
Th' unbounded waters to my sight
Eternity appeared.'

The nature of our language does not appear to us to admit of the word '*real*' being contracted to a monosyllable, as in the 16th Fable, page 64,

'Who *real* insignificance feel,'

especially in our anapæstic lines, with which English poets are apt to take inadmissible liberties. They should never forget that to "slide glibly off the tongue" is the chief merit of this measure; which, though perhaps one of the most easy to write, is of all the most difficult to write well.—We must also remark that the point or moral of these fables is not always so neatly and tersely expressed as we could wish. There is in this respect a happy elegance in the works of the unfortunate Pignotti, which we freely confess we never yet found equalled; and we would recommend to the author of the Enchanted Plants an attentive perusal of them, and especially the two fables of "*La rosa e lo spino*" and "*Narciso al fonti.*"

Art. 21. *Epistle in Rhyme to M. G. Lewis, Esq.* M. P. Author of the Monk, &c. With other Verses, including Stanzas addressed to Mrs. Jordan. By —— Soame, Esq. late of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 24. 6d. Lunn.

The epistle, which occupies the greater part of this small pamphlet, is written much in the style of Mr. Lewis's own poetry. It is sometimes lively, and contains a few good lines, but is on the whole languid and incorrect The same terror also of the Devil, with his horns and tail, prevails in it; and the author is a sturdy defender both of the indecency and the ghosts of Mr. Lewis's productions. We shall extract the apology for apparitions, as a favourable specimen of the poetry:

'Say, oft as Night and Silence o'er the earth
Draw their close veil, and give reflection birth,
Is not a spirit, good or ill confest,
In ev'ry virtuous, ev'ry guilty breast?
Does not a voice, that will be heard, pervade
The inmost soul in deep retirement's shade?
Does it not calm of innocence the fear?
Does it not yell to prosp'rous vice, "Despair!"
Why then forbid the poet's art to give
Corporeal shape to what all feel who live?

No mind so firm but oft recurs in thought,
To *all the priest and all the nurse have taught*;
Mem'ry acknowleges the forms of air,
And ev'ry goblin finds acquaintance there.
Not so the monstrous brood that shock belief,
Palm'd on the town by Morton and O'Keeffe;
Who, still with nature and good sense at strife,
Profanely stile their figures drawn from life:
Ev'n Boaden's ghost is surely full as good,
As Holcroft's characters of flesh and blood,
To which, throughout the year, no day goes by,
But gives in ev'ry lineament the lie.
Soon shall some wag, to set opinions right,
Describe the nymphs of Billingsgate—polite,
Soft sentiment from lips of butchers roll,
Or with a tender turnkey melt the soul!
Since valiant taylors, on the stage let loose,
Rouse all the lion rampant—in the goose!
And gen'rous Jews unsparingly dispense
Pure christianity and vital pence!'

Of the other short poems, the less that is said the better. **Fer.**

Art. 22. *Poems on various Occasions;* with Translations from Authors in different Languages. By the Rev. W. Collier, Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. Two Vols. 8vo. 12s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

The author of these poems, which are published by subscription, informs us in his preface that they 'were written in times of affluence and happiness, but are published in those of a far different condition: of the originals, there are very few which were not composed on real and particular occasions; and, had not difficulties in life appeared, these efforts of a private and unfeigning muse would, most likely, never have been exposed to public view: the author, therefore, more than indifferent as to the applause or censure of those who know him only by these printed poems, is without anxiety as to the judgment which they may deserve; and has little wish as to their dispersion, but as far as the profits may tend to alleviate the burthens which were the causes of their having been committed to the press.'

Under these circumstances, the reader will excuse us from entering into a strict examination of the contents of the volumes. We shall merely extract one or two poems, as specimens.

'SERENATA.—TO ROSALBA.

'Cease for a while thy strain,
Sweet Bird of Eve! To Sorrow's languid ear
Thy warblings may be dear,
While they of wrongs and cruel deeds complain:
But in Rosalba's breast,
By Love, by Truth possest,
Sleep now would fix his reign, and reigning there be blest.

'All

'All nature sinks around
In stillest calm; upon the mountain-trees
Expires the nightly breeze,
Nor streams to Echo give the faintest sound;
Amid the blue serene
The silent Moon is seen,
And stars, with noiseless train, accompany their Queen.

'Now, Sleep! exert thy pow'r,
And as thy phantoms in bright order rise,
On wings of various dyes,
Thy choicest charms on my Rosalba show'r!
Do thou her eye-lids close,
While kindled in repose,
Fancy, Love's secret friend, within her bosom glows.

'Sweet Bird of Eve! O keep
Respectful silence; and thou, nightly breeze,
Wave not the mountain trees;
Nor, Echo! thou disturb the reign of Sleep:
And you, ye Stars, that move
In noiseless train above,
O shed your kindest beams, and guard my sleeping love!'

'LEVITIES.—The THREE PHIALS.

'A Bon-vivant, some say t'was Quin,
It matters not a single pin,
For all the who, the where, and when,
I leave to those grave learned men,
Who cannot laugh, and will not cry,
Unless they know the reason why;
Mine is, by far, a better plan,
Cry when I must, laugh when I can.
'This Bon-vivant one morning found
His sleep had not been quite so sound,
His head was muzzy, pulse was full,
His stomach queer, his spirits dull:
Jerry, says he, to Bolus go,
And tell him, I am but so-so;
Bid him send something spicy, warm,
Such as he knows will do no harm;
I'll stay at home, and try at night
What rest will do to set me right.
Away went Jerry: hardly gone,
When some companions of the ton,
Just made a call, propos'd a scheme,
Which put to flight the drowsy dream
Of home and rest; with them he went,
And past the time in full content.
Jerry came back, three phials brought,
With sov'reign pow'rs of healing fraught:
But where's his master? gone astray,
To try for health a better way.——

The

The day was past, the night was come,
Or rather morning peep'd, when home
The master came, his spirits light,
His pulse was cheery, eye was bright,—
When on the table, in a row,
He saw the phials,—goodly show,—
Each with a label trimly deck'd,
The time and purpose to direct.
He read the first—*This please to take*
Immediately—the cheerful rake
Obey'd the order,—down it goes,—
And then he read the second dose;
What's here?—*Take this at going to rest.*—
Why, aye, says he, it is confest,
I'm going to bed—without a frown,
He fairly chucks the second down:
When lo! the third in sight appear'd;
What, am I never to be clear'd
Of all this stuff? in angry phrase
He spoke,—but, let's see what it says,—
This, Sir, you will be pleas'd to take
To-morrow morning;—please to shake
The phial well: this droll advice
Calm'd all his anger in a trice;
His watch declar'd, beyond denial,
'Twas four o'clock; he shook the phial,
And with the first and second, he
Pops down the third for company.
This tale, a lucky proof supplies,
How to be merry, and be wise;
And how we may, on same condition,
Please both ourselves, and our physician.'

If these compositions prove agreeable to the reader's taste, he may promise himself much amusement from the present collection.

The second volume consists chiefly of translations from Latin, French, and Italian poets. Some of the notes evince considerable erudition, particularly that on the Engubine tablet.

We are glad to observe that Mr. Collier has obtained a numerous and most respectable list of subscribers.

Fer.r

Art. 23. *The Birth-Day*: A Comedy, in Three Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent.Garden. Altered from the German of Kotzebue, and adapted to the English Stage. By Thomas Dibdin, Author of the Jew and the Doctor, &c. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1800.

This is a play altered from Kotzebue's *Reconciliation*, of which we have already given an account. Mr. Dibdin has judiciously omitted many sentimental passages, and has softened much of the absurdity of his original. He has even occasionally introduced a little humour, instead of the Teutonic insipidity which palled us in the unaltered play; and he has contrived, by several ingenious turns, to give some degree

degree of zest to those personages who produced the longest yawn from us in our review of the former. For all this indulgence, we feel ourselves obliged to Mr. Dibdin; and we should be still farther indebted to him, if he would give us some production more his own, which would not revive (as this does) the spectre of past disgust, even in those instances in which we approve his alterations.

When we compare this performance with the drudging translations of Kotzebue which have so often excited our contempt, we cannot help repeating our surprize that persons so little acquainted with the feelings of the English public should presume to inundate it with the Vandalisms of authorship; of poetry we say nothing. In the dress which these translations wear, they tempt us to imitate the lines of Pope:

"Past wit and present, living sense and dead,
All, all be lost, and *Kotz'bue* may be read!" **Fer.**

Art. 24. *Adelaide:* A Tragedy in Five Acts, as performed with Universal Applause, at the Theatre-Royal Drury-Lane. By Henry James Pye, Poet Laureat. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1800.

Had not the title-page informed us that this tragedy was received on its representation *with universal applause*, we should not have conjectured this circumstance from a perusal of it. Surely the public theatrical taste must have experienced a remarkable change, if it was delighted with a drama like that now before us: which in a great degree consists of long dialogues, during which the stage must have resembled a theatre for declamation rather than for action. Pit, boxes, and gallery, have required something more to amuse them; and play-wrights have not ventured to court applause merely by the production of a dramatic poem, but have studied to keep the stage alive, and to make the dialogue subservient to the progress of the action;—not to create incidents merely as *pegs* on which to hang a long string of speeches and rejoinders. How has it happened, then, that Mr. Pye has succeeded? The performers must have gone through their protracted *lengths* to admiration, if they won from the audience their 'universal applause;' for the second act contains a single dialogue between Prince Richard and Adelaide, which, without the smallest relief or interruption, extends through almost nine pages; and in the fourth act we find another, between the same characters, which occupies above six pages more.

In our opinion, the structure and conduct of this drama do not intitle it to distinguished notice. For the most part, it may be said to be taken from Tragedy's Common-Place Book. Richard and Adelaide, the hero and heroine, sigh and rave, accuse and pardon each other with all the rapid change of feeling which is usual with dramatic lovers; and though the language is good, and the sentiments are unexceptionable, we must own that, considered as the production of Mr. Pye, who holds no mean station among the poets of the age, we have here been altogether much disappointed.

One circumstance, however, we must applaud. The Laureat has not thought it necessary to introduce either the *dagger* or the *bowl*, to constitute his poem *A Tragedy*. King Henry indeed dies, but not

not on the stage; nor is his death occasioned by violence, but by grief co-operating with disease and old age. Now in thus banishing murder and assassination from our theatrical spectacles, he has given an example which merits imitation. Let us not be so barbarous as to seek amusement from sanguinary scenes, nor henceforth regard *blood* as essential to the essence of tragedy. Ought not all serious and soul-moving dramas, which strongly excite our *Pity* and *Terror*, to be considered as tragedies, though Death itself stalks not over the stage?

Art. 25. *The Tournament*, a Tragedy; imitated from the celebrated German Drama, entitled Agnes Bernauer, which was written by a Nobleman of high Rank, and founded on a fact that occurred in Bavaria about the year 1435. By Mariana Starke. 8vo. 2s. R. Phillips. 1800.

Tragedies founded on facts may transform facts into downright improbabilities; of which an instance is now before us. The *Agnes* of the Tournament could never be the Agnes of Nature. For the sake of the moral given in the last line, 'that innocence is the peculiar care of heaven,' her life is preserved against the truth of history: but the poet had better have plunged her into the Danube, than have continued her existence to utter the following tame lamentation over the body of her father, murdered in her defence:

'Behold how still, how spiritless he lies!—
Day after day, and year succeeding year,
Yon sun shall kiss the earth which covers him,
And he unconscious sleep!'.

The observation is indeed very just: but it is more adapted to the mouth of an Epictetus than of an Agnes.

While perusing this drama, we marked several passages for animadversion: but, where criticism can be so easily exercised, it is most manly and generous to forbear; we will therefore borrow a phrase from this lady, and

——in mercy *crop*
Our thread of stricture short.

We regret that we cannot express so favourable an opinion of Miss Starke's dramatic talents, as of her epistolary qualifications: see our account of her *Letters from Italy*, Rev. vol. xxxii. p. 225, and 387.

Art. 26. *The Egyptian Festival*; an Opera, in Three Acts: as performed at Drury-Lane. Written by Andrew Franklin. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1800.

A long and rather peevish preface to this drama inclined us to expect less merit in it than we found. The causes of the author's complaints are no others than those which all former writers for music have had to encounter. Metastasio had the same hardships to combat; yet they are not detailed in any of his prefaces. The musical composer in the present instance is not named: but there seems to have been some heart-burning between the poet and the musician; who on these occasions are often mutually jealous of each other. Instead of the *union* of poetry and music, they are generally at war in our theatres, when they should aid and assist each other.

The

The violation of the unities must be excused in an opera, particularly a comic opera. The fable of this piece is divided into so many plots, that it would be difficult to say which was the principal. In musical dramas, however, there is no time for discussion, reasoning, or even for sentiment, except in the songs; the scenes must be short, and the changes frequent; and in this drama no one can complain of the want of *stage business*, and *coups de théatre*. There is indeed such a perpetual variety of character and incident, that the audience has no leisure for reflection on the unities or established laws of the drama by Aristotle and Horace: yet, though the incidents are rapid and wild, there is so much amusement of various kinds in this opera, that all but fastidious critics must have been interested and entertained.

To enumerate the several means employed to produce the amusement, we might instance the three or four plots, for three or four pairs of lovers; the tyranny, treachery, and brutality of Mustapha; the humanity and generosity of the English Governor; the distress and danger of the dethroned Ali; the duty and affection of his son, by whose courage and activity his life was saved, and his kingdom restored; then the embellishments of music, and vocal powers of Madame Mara and Mrs. Bland; the spirited action and pleasing manner of singing of Miss de Camp; the humourous dialogue and excellent acting of young Banister and Suett; together with the scenes, decorations, and dancing; all of which must have combined to please that part of the audience which was at all so disposed. D.B.

Art. 27. *Ignez de Castro;* a Portuguese Tragedy, in Three Acts. Written by Don Domingo Quita. Translated by Benjamin Thomson, Esq. 12mo. 1s. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

The affecting story of Inez de Castro has taken classical rank in this country, from Mickle's delightful versification: but we shall not advise any reader of the translation of Camoens to resort, for farther pleasure, to the drama before us. After every allowance is made for the disguise of a meagre prose-version, we can extract no matter for commendation from the Portuguese tragedian. Fer

Art. 28. *Petrarchal Sonnets, and Miscellaneous Poems.* By William Dimond, the younger. Crown 8vo. pp. 165. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

The author of these verses informs us that they were produced at the early age of sixteen, and that their composition served to relieve him from more severe studies. To write poetry at the age of sixteen is natural enough, but to publish it is not very prudent. The antients, before they drank wine at table, poured out a cup on the floor, as a libation to the gods. In like manner, it should be a religious duty with young writers to offer their first fruits to Vulcan.

The gentle bard before us seems to have met with more of the indulgence of patronage, than of the wholesome discipline of criticism; and we should be sorry to damp the agreeable feelings with which his list of subscribers must have inspired him. A farther perseverance in his studies will convince him of the necessity of writing a more correct, and a more *English* style; and will cure him of the habit

habit of inventing words, which is so very conspicuous in his dedication and preface. Such words as *to affectionate*, (as a verb active,) *ensoul'd*, *memorise*, *tireless*, *parturitions of genius*, which occur to the eye in the course of a few pages, are certainly inadmissible in good writing. In the 10th sonnet, also, we observed '*hearted pulse*;' and various phrases, equally unauthorized, are scattered through the volume.

We give the following as a specimen of the sonnets:

'*To a* MYRTLE.

'Lo! blooming Myrtle, on thy polish'd rind
I grave the cypher of the fair I prize;
And know the mark a secret worth implies
Of mystic import to its form assign'd,
Of strong persuasion o'er the rugged mind,
And bright bewitchment on licentious eyes,
That awes them into virtue by surprize:
Oh, Myrtle! as approv'd these truths thou find,
Whene'er thy procreant charms present a shoot,
(In native robe of deathless verdure drest)
Still be the cypher on that shoot imprest!
So born and nurtur'd of thy parent root
In green expanse shall wave a *letter'd grove*,
Teaching the word of UNIVERSAL LOVE!'

We shall forbear to examine particularly the remaining contents of this publication. In the course of a very few years, the author will probably think, as we do at present, that he has been somewhat premature in appearing at the bar of the public.

Art. 29. *A Poetic Survey round Birmingham;* with a brief Description of the different Curiosities and Manufactories of the Place. Intended as a Guide to Strangers. By J. Bisset. Accompanied by a magnificent Directory, with the Names, Professions, &c, superbly engraved on emblematic Plates. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Printed for the Author at Birmingham.

Notwithstanding the relationship subsisting between the *Belles Lettres*, and the *Beaux Arts*, we are not to imagine that the region of elegant manufactures is the region of poetry; nor that the Muses take lodgings at "Vulcan's smithy." Mr. Bisset makes mention of an excursion of the Gods to Birmingham, but he does not tell us that these Ladies accompanied them; and if they did, we have no evidence of their being singularly partial to him. This *Survey* has indeed the merit of easy, familiar, and minutely descriptive versification, but the epithet *poetic* does not in general belong to it. The writer has endeavoured to exhibit, as from the top of St. Philip's Church, *A Panorama* of Birmingham in verse; or to string together, in artless rhimes, the names of the different seats, manufactories, &c in and round that town: followed by 'A Ramble of the Gods through Birmingham,' who are made to wonder at smelting-mills and steam engines, and at the dexterity of pin and button makers, &c.

To the stranger who visits this astonishing place, Mr. Bisset's survey will be not only amusing but useful; and the elegant decora-

tions which accompany it considerably add to its value: yet we are of opinion that his verse would have better suited these embellishments, and that it would in itself have been more gratifying, had he been more solicitous of the critic's approbation; instead of treating it with contempt, when he sets out with proclaiming:

'Tho' critics may cavil *for ever and ever*,
I dread not their frown, nor solicit their favour;'

and thus in this very act of rejecting critical aid, he manifests his want of it. We were therefore prepared to expect, if not 'for ever and ever,' at least the *frequent recurrence* of lines too lame, trite, and vulgar for poetry; and which a Muse chastised in the school of elegant criticism would never have adopted. We do not mean, however, to impeach Mr. B.'s capacity so much as his negligence; for there are many lines in this poem which are creditable to his talents.

The notes at the bottom of each page explain every allusion in the verse, and add greatly to the value of the Survey: but the circumstance which most distinguishes it from all similar *guides* is that it is accompanied by numerous well executed copper plates, forming what is called a Magnificent Directory. Here much taste is displayed; and we should hence infer that the artists of Birmingham could execute the shield of Achilles, though no poet may be found competent to a description of it.

Mr. Bisset is the owner of a museum and repository for toys, jewellery, drawings, &c. near the Theatre, New-Street, Birmingham; and we have no doubt that his spirit and taste will meet with all the encouragement which they appear to deserve.

Art. 30. *An Ode on the Victory of the Nile*, 1st August, 1798, gained by Admiral Lord Nelson over the French Fleet, commanded by Admiral Brueys, in the Bay of Aboukir. 4to. 2s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

This slight poetical celebration of the brilliant victory at Aboukir makes its appearance at the present juncture, on the occasion of Lord Nelson's return to his native land. We apprehend that the writer had Dryden's famous ode in his remembrance, when he composed these lines: how far the recollection animated his powers may perhaps be seen from the following specimen:

'On a foe in vain imploring,
Britain's thunders here are hurl'd;
In majestic terror pouring
The resentment of the world.
Fury leads the stern commotion,
Scattering carnage o'er the ocean;
Pain with fangs of blood is nigh;
Discord howls her troublous cry;
And death in every hideous form
Exults, the demon of the storm.
Sudden!—to the vaulted skies
Rushing flames volcanic rise;
Ruin breathing devastations,
Wakens the destructive fires,
Hope retreats, and life expires.—

Behold!

Behold! the Gallic fleet that rode,
Boast of states, and pride of nations,
Sinking, sinking, sinking, sinking,
Deep in the relentless flood.'

G. 2. but charged to Moy.

Art. 31. *Bardomachia, Poema Macaronico-Latinum.* 4to. 1s. Johnson.

Art. 32. *Bardomachia:* or the Battle of the Bards. Translated from the Original (Macaronic) Latin. 4to. 1s. Johnson.

The two modern satirists, whose late *un-poetic* conflict is here narrated with considerable genius and humour, have made themselves conspicuous objects for the exercise of their favourite profession. No two bards ever more completely exposed themselves; and they must submit to be held up to ridicule, even while smarting under their bruises.

This macaronic Bardomachia may not give a very correct account of the manner in which the *ultima ratio blackguardorum* was conducted by the *high* contending parties; nor would we be so very fastidious as to require a rigid attention to dull matter of fact, from its witty satirical author. His latinity evinces an intimate acquaintance with the classics; and if we had any thing to object to him, it would be on the score of his not being sufficiently macaronic. His English manifests equal talents and playfulness. Without undertaking to decide how far he has adhered to facts, we shall give the moral of his tale (which remains unaffected by variations in the statements) as a specimen of his manner:

'Fabellam audistis. Fabellæ philosophema
Discite—Vos omnes, scribendi queis cacoethes,
Ante oculos semper retinete hortamina Flacci:
Sumite materiam vestris qui scribitis æquam
Viribus: et versate diu quid ferre recusent,
Quid valeant humeri—Non omnia possumus omnes.

'Præcipuè, libeat Satyrâ si pingere mores,
Sint chartæ nullo tinctæ livore maligno:
Plectatur vitium, parcatur sed vitioso:
Stultitiæ risus debetur—*pitya* stulto.
Quam minime valeant convicia, fædaque verba,
Exemplum clarè docet hoc—Bini ecce poetæ
Alternis sese probrosis rodere dictis
Certant—Quid sequitur? Sunt *both* ludibria turbæ!
Quis *pityæ* lacrumam, audito certamine, fundit;
Aut *spreadit* capiti violato vulnere *plastrum?*
Non ipsi *Bardi bardorum* sorte moventur:
Jure omnes factum conclamant; imaque circum
Omnia solvuntur fuso subsellia risu.'

'From personal abuse what evils rise,
This pat example sets before our eyes.
Had Pindar and Mæviades been men
Who never brandish'd a malignant pen—
Who never stain'd the candour of their paper
With the black snuffings of a smoking taper;

And given a consequential air of state
To all the low-born brats of Billingsgate:
Their, no mean, talents might have been employ'd
In writing rimes, that we could have enjoy'd:
And they, themselves, be, at this very hour,
Softly reposing in the Muses' bow'r:
Whereas, through mutual envy, mutual rage,
See them in base and bloody war engage;
Rake ev'ry dung-hill, loads of filth to throw
At one another—each a desp'rate foe!
What is the consequence? Both, with disgrace,
Become the scorn and laughter of the place;
The mocking-stock of even the populace.
Who, for their sake, a tear of pity sheds?
Or spreads a plaster for their batter'd heads?
E'en brother-bards regardless pass along,
And in loud laughter join the vulgar throng.'

We suspect that these effusions proceed from the pen of a learned gentleman, who has formerly amused the public with macaronic poems, and who is celebrated for works in the highest department of biblical criticism.

Mo.

POLITICS, POLICE, &c.

Art. 33. *Authentic Copies of the Papers relative to the Commencement of Negociations for Peace with France*, as laid before both Houses of Parliament, 13th November, 1800. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

This correspondence sufficiently developes the object of the Chief Consul, and may be generally thought to justify our Government in rejecting the proposed naval armistice, as a previous condition of negociation. Perhaps the fear of our influence in the scale may have induced Bonaparte to ask high and extravagant terms; intending that, by our rejection of them, we should be excluded from taking a part in the Congress at Luneville.

D°.

Art. 34. *The celebrated Speech of the Hon. C. J. Fox*, with the Proceedings of the Meeting at the Shakespeare Tavern, October 10, 1800, being the Anniversary of his first Election for Westminster, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

With a strong and penetrating mind, Mr. Fox here reviews the circumstances of the war; makes an open and undisguised avowal of his political principles; and declares that, in his opinion, the war is the *principal cause* of the high price of provisions.

D°.

Art. 35. *Anti-Revolutionary Thoughts of a Revolutionary Writer:* from the "Secret History of the Revolution of France," by Monsieur François Pagès. 8vo. 3s. Wright. 1800.

Of M. Pagès's history we gave a long account in M. R. vol. xxiv. p. 290; and our critique would shew that it furnished abundant matter for such a compilation as that which is now before us.

It is observed by M. Pagès, that the revolution of France is attended with this particular circumstance; that 'it has been directed by several rival factions, all of them equally eager to destroy each other

other, and bent alike on raising the public opinion in their favour, by every species of illusion that could tend to inveigle and mislead the people.' Hence different sentiments have been disseminated at different times; and it may be added that writers, when the violent paroxysms and exacerbations of a revolution are over, will venture on the condemnation of opinions and measures which, during the feverish state of the public mind, they may deem it both useless and unsafe harshly to censure. M. Pagès availed himself of the first opportunity of speaking with freedom; and many of his thoughts are certainly of an anti-revolutionary complexion. Indeed, so full of error, crime, and horror, has the French revolution been, that no republican of sense and feeling can contemplate it without expressions of disapprobation and grief.

To the revolutions, counter-revolutions, insurrections, conspiracies, assassinations, murders, massacres, usurpations, and tyrannies noticed by M. Pagès, the compiler of this pamphlet supposes that Bonaparte is preparing an Appendix.

Mo.y.

Art. 36. *Observations on the Objections made to the Export of Wool from Great Britain to Ireland.* By John Lord Sheffield. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1800.

In this sensible pamphlet, the noble author endeavours to quiet the minds of our woollen manufacturers respecting a clause in the Act of Union, which allows the exportation of British wool to Ireland. He contends that 'the permission to import wool from this country into Ireland may prevent its becoming a drug (as it sometimes has been); that it may prevent also its deterioration; and, moreover, that no more can go to Ireland than what our manufactures do not want.' He maintains, in opposition to some late assertions, that 'the growth of wool is greatly increased in England,' (for how else, he asks, could there have been such an extraordinary increase of the manufacture*?) and that it is more than sufficient to supply our own manufactures: observing also, that 'Ireland has a considerable manufacture of woollens and mixtures of wool, and will continue to have it whether wool shall be permitted to go thither from England or not.'

Lord Sheffield offers other important considerations on this subject; and, as a friend to the union, he speaks in the highest terms of the policy of this great measure.

Dº

Art. 37. *State of the Nation, with respect to its Funded Debt, Revenue, and Disbursements;* comprized in the *Reports* of the Select Committee appointed by the House of Commons: With an *Appendix* to each Report. Also, to enquire into the Receipts and Disbursements of the different Public Offices, &c. Vol. III. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Symonds. 1799.

In our 26th vol. N.S. p. 351. we gave a brief account of the nature and importance of this valuable compilement. The present volume contains the Reports concerning the Barrack and Ordnance Offices, the Exchequer, Public Revenue and Expenditure, Privy

* In 1782 it was estimated at 14,000,000l.; in 1791 at 19,000,000l.

Council and Privy Seal Offices, and Courts of Justice; with the names of the principal officers, their revenues, fees, duties, &c.

Art. 38. *State of the Nation*, comprized in the Reports of the Select Committee appointed by the House of Commons to examine and state the total Amount of the Public Debts and of the Interest and Charges attending the same, viz. Police, Stationary Office, Civil Government of Scotland, Admiralty, Dock-yards, and Transports, Victualling Office, Sick and Wounded Seamen, Chatham Chest, and Greenwich and Chelsea Hospitals: with the Names of the principal Officers, their Salaries, Fees, Duties, and Attendance; with what other Places, Pensions, or Employments they hold, paid by the Public. Vol. IV. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Symonds. 1800.

We are glad to see this undertaking so successfully continued The historian and the politician will, doubtless, consider it as a valuable storehouse, or magazine, of important and authentic information.

Art. 39. *An Address to the good Sense and Candour of the People*, in behalf of the Dealers in Corn: with some few Observations on a late Trial for Regrating. By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 178. 3s. 6d. Egerton, &c. 1800.

To combat those prejudices and misconceptions, however and wherever they originate, which have a tendency to awaken the mob to undertake the redress of grievances, is to act at once patriotically and loyally. When the dearness of corn instigates the populace, with a mistaken rage against farmers and corn-dealers, to destroy barns, ricks, granaries, and mills, it may be in vain perhaps to call out to them "*Vestras spes uritis:*" but it may be of great use to invite the sober and reflecting among the middle classes of society, to a temperate and calm inquiry into the real cause of the evil; for, as the motto to this pamphlet says, "Clamour is not reason—assertion fact—nor accusation guilt."—The gentleman who here boldly steps forwards, we learn from the advertisement of a second edition of his pamphlet, is Sir Thomas Turton; and, even in opposition to a high legal opinion, he pleads the cause of the whole description of corn-dealers, and pronounces the clamours against them to be 'senseless.' He contends that monopoly is not the cause of the high price of bread; and that to encourage such an idea, in these times, is extremely dangerous. He combats Lord Kenyon's opinion on the subject of regrating, and perhaps the arguments which he has employed may not be disregarded even by his Lordship. Sir Thomas considers the case of the farmer—the miller and mealman—the flour-factor—the baker—the merchant—the importer—the lighterman and warehouseman—the jobber or middle man—and the corn-chandler. He particularly comments on the late trial and decision in the case of Mr. John Rusby, and concludes with this general doctrine: 'That the commercial prosperity of a great nation will be in proportion to the protection and encouragement which every man in it receives, to employ his talents, his industry, and his property, in that line most conformable to his views or inclinations.'

This

This we believe to be sound argument, which the operation of no temporary circumstance should be supposed to invalidate. Mo.y.

Art. 40. *Observations on the present high Price of Provisions.* In a Letter to the Lord Lieutenant and Inhabitants of Hampshire. By John Duthy, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

It is the object of this writer to establish an assertion which the Minister has roundly denied, viz. that the *War* is the master-mischief from which the high price of provisions originates. For this purpose, Mr. D. does not content himself with bare assertions, but adduces facts, and argues on them with temper. After having made what he conceives to be a fair deduction from a statement which he thinks himself justified in considering as tolerably correct, he says that there remain '*two hundred and ninety-three thousand unproductive members of society, to be provided for, more than in time of peace;*' and to prove how the care of Government in feeding this vast military force operates in augmenting the price of the necessaries of life, he observes that, 'when every one caters for himself, he provides no more than he can consume: but when provision is made for collected numbers, waste must inevitably ensue.' Again, 'Even if the same quantity of food was consumed by the same body of men when maintaining themselves, (which has been shewn not to be the case,) there is a material difference between the silent and imperceptible operation of supplying the wants of 200,000 individuals, catering each for himself, when and where he can best be supplied; and that of satisfying the imperious necessities of the same number collected into large bodies.'

The author ridicules the idea of monopoly * among the farmers, and concludes with energetically exhorting the people to petition the Throne for an immediate PEACE, as the only means of saving the country. Do

Art. 41. *Strictures on the true Cause of the present alarming Scarcity of Grain and other Provisions;* and a Plan for permanent Relief: Humbly submitted to Public Consideration. By Alexander Annesley. With an historical Deduction of the Prices of Provisions, interspersed with various Matters connected with the Commerce and Navigation of Great Britain. Together with a Chronological Account of the several Statutes, Proclamations, and Parliamentary Regulations, for controuling the Markets, and preventing Monopoly, Engrossing, &c. &c. from the Norman Conquest to the present Æra. 8vo. 2s. Murray and Co.

This pamphlet has a complexion and a tendency very different from those which mark the Observations of Mr. Duthy, mentioned in the preceding article. It is prefaced by a dedication to Mr. Pitt, who is compared to the angel which, by divine command,

"Rides in the whirlwind, and directs the storm;"

and here we read of *famine* in the midst of *plenty!* scarcity at a time of *unequalled exuberance!* and *factitious dearth*, in spite of *superior fecundity!* Yet, though Mr. A. is lavish of his encomiums on the

* If monopoly exists any where, he contends it is with the *Minister*, who has so many thousands constantly to feed.

Minister, it cannot be suspected that his theme was furnished by the Cabinet; since it is completely at variance with the Duke of Portland's Letter, lately published in the newspapers, which makes no mention of 'superior fecundity*.' According to Mr. A. 'The war has been the *pretext*, rather than the *cause* of the high price of every article of subsistence;' and as to our increased expences, they are only the natural result of the additional resources which are created by the war. Britain's attitude is noble and imposing, while France is only 'a monstrous *chimæra*,' having 'a *Corsican keeper*.'—However, the high price of provisions being indisputable, it is admitted that something must be done to ease the people; and Mr. Annesley advises a bounty on *production* rather than on importation; that all grain should be subject to *the operation of the excise laws;* and that public granaries and additional corn-mills should be erected at the public expence: for he would make it appear that the delinquency, which enhances the price of grain, rests with those who are employed in passing it from the *farmer* to the *consumer*.

Some remarks on the mode of conducting inclosures, and on giving encouragement to boat-fisheries, merit attention. At present, private individuals are more benefited by inclosures than the public; from the poor, their little commonable rights are often taken without an adequate compensation; and the parochial assessments are increased. If the inclosure of large wastes could be made on the principle of *home colonization*, and Government would adopt the hint of Mr. A., some employment and provision could be made for our soldiers and sailors at the return of peace; while the internal strength and resources of the empire would be increased. Government would make a judicious expenditure of public money, in an experiment of this kind in the New Forest.

Mr. A.'s historical deduction of the price of provisions (taken in a great measure from Fleetwood's *Chronicon Preciosum*,) is curious, and contains some useful hints. Our ancestors, he observes, endeavoured as much as possible to prevent any *middle man* from coming in between the *grower* and the *consumer*. Mo.y.

Art. 42. *The Cause of the present threatened Famine traced to its real Source*, viz. An actual Depreciation of our circulating Medium, occasioned by the Paper Currency, with which the War, the Shock given to Public Credit in 1794, the Stoppage of the Bank in 1797, and the Bankruptcies of Hamburgh in 1799, inundated the Country, to accommodate Government, and enable the Merchants to keep up the Price of their Merchandize; shewing by an Arithmetical Calculation, founded on Facts, the Extent, nay, the very Mode of the Progress which the Paper System has made, in reducing the People to Paupers. With its only apparent practicable Remedy. By Common Sense. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

From the title of this pamphlet, the reader will conjecture that it is not, like the foregoing, dedicated to the Minister, nor written to support his measures. Here the war is pronounced 'unchristian

* In p. 8, he speaks of '*plentiful* and *exuberant* harvests.' This is not the language of the Duke of P.'s letter.

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and fatal*,' and its 'objects visionary:' though the author, who declares himself a *Scotchman*, does not declaim against it on any moral principle, but as depreciating the value of money, as increasing its quantity either really or nominally, and as thus necessarily affecting the price of provisions. He considers *money* as a commodity, the quantity of which must invariably govern its value; so that, if the *circulating medium* be increased from 18,000,000 (the estimated quantity at the Revolution) to 90,000,000, the necessaries of life must be five to one dearer; and he therefore denies that either the growers or dealers in the necessaries of life are, *in the first instance*, the cause of the *dearness of things*, which he would call *the cheapness of money*. He states that the public evil attaching to any increase of our circulating medium is twofold, viz. the additional interest to be paid by labour, and a depreciation on the circulating medium.

To remedy the evil of *dearness*, this writer recommends the dissolution of paper currency,—the removal of the exclusive monopoly of money from the Bank,—and a new, very new, principle of taxation; that the men of wealth shall pay all taxes, and the laborious classes be exempt.—If the cure cannot be effected without the application of these remedies, we fear that it is very remote.

This writer attributes the *Chronicon Preciosum* to *Stillingfleet* instead of to Fleetwood.

Mo-y.

Art. 43. *The whole Proceedings and Resolutions of the Freeholders of the County of Middlesex*, at a Meeting publicly convened and held by the High Sheriff at Hackney, Oct. 29, 1800, where it was unanimously resolved that the War is the Cause of the alarming High Price of Provisions, &c. &c. &c. Also, a very interesting Debate on the Parliamentary Conduct of Mr. Byng and Mr. Mainwaring, the present Representatives of the County. To which is added, The Prospect of Famine clearly demonstrated by his Grace the Duke of Portland, in his Letters to Mr. Wakefield, Mayor of Nottingham, and the Lord Lieutenant of the County of Oxford. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

This pamphlet is composed of materials which have been amply detailed in the newspapers, and of which we leave the public to form their own opinion. There may be writers who will discuss the policy of the Duke of Portland's letters.

Mo.y.

Dº

Art. 44. *Thoughts on the present Prices of Provisions*, their Causes and Remedies; addressed to all Ranks of People. By an Independent Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 87. Reynolds. 1800.

Under the very difficult and alarming circumstances of the present times, this publication is intitled to peculiar consideration: since it appears to come from the pen of no party-man, and certainly no superficial writer, but from a gentleman who has reflected on the subject, who seems to be actuated by the most liberal motives, and who has given to his thoughts a clear arrangement. Without formal preface, or preamble, he enters on the interesting discussion.—The causes of the present high prices he pronounces to be deep and complicated, and he conceives them to be included in the following enumeration:

* It is called 'a war *of victory by sea and of famine by land*,' p. 7.

1. A deficiency in the harvest of 1799. 2. Impediments thrown in the way of imports from the Baltic. 3. The increase of taxation. 4. The increase of real capital. 5. The increase of artificial capital by paper circulation, to an enormous amount; particularly through the medium of country banks. 6. The great increase of wealth among the farmers. 7. The increase of a spirit of narrow selfishness, rapacity, and speculation. 8. The state of the warfare in which we are engaged, 'which in course throws something into the scale of evil, by inducing a more wasteful consumption, necessitating contracts of a large and expensive description, and obstructing to a certain degree the channels of external supply.'

Though the author proceeds to observe, that to some of these causes of evil no sensible (at least no immediate) remedy can be applied, yet he is of opinion that there are measures, the application of which would effect singular benefits to the country. With the spirit of a Briton, he scouts the idea of negociating an unsafe and inglorious peace with our insulting foe, for the purpose of obtaining relief from present scarcity. He would seek a remedy by other means. He recommends, 1. To take an accurate account of the grain in the island. 2. Of live stock. 3. That magazines of rice be formed in different parts of the kingdom; and, 4thly and principally, that the magistrates be authorized to fix and publish a *maximum* of prices, both of provisions and labour, in their respective districts. This last point, to which the writer was aware great opposition would be made, is discussed with much ability. He distinctly states and replies to the several objections which will probably be urged; and we must do him the justice to confess that his remarks have made a considerable impression on our minds, though we are not entire converts to his doctrine, that his proposed maximum 'is necessary to lay the giant that now oppresses us in the dust.' So far, however, we agree with him, that the measures of importation and cultivation of wastes, recommended by the highest authority, may fall short of the public expectation, and that we should not depend too much on them. Speaking of the latter, he says that 'he has the mortification of thinking, that not only no immediate resource can be derived from its adoption; but that little, if any in future, in the diminution of prices, is likely to flow from it,' because he conceives that the population will grow in proportion to the improvement. This idea is farther illustrated in p. 30.

The inadequacy of the several palliatives which have been recommended, and in part adopted, is here sufficiently exposed; yet not so as to prove the expediency and justice of the author's favourite *maximum* on articles of prime necessity. The instances adduced of established maximums in the interest of money, and in the assize of bread, are not strictly analogous to the case of the farmer; and surely the farmer would have reason to complain, if the merchant and shopkeeper were not laid under a similar restraint. However, the writer speaks with perfect confidence of the propriety and success of his proposed measure; and he roundly asserts that '*no alternative* remains for our choice, but either to *compel* an immediate reduction of price, or destroy every manufacture and small fortune in the kingdom.'

Again,

Again, towards the conclusion; 'an *adjustment of prices* is the *only* measure calculated to afford the most distant chance of cure for the enormous and inveterate malady of the land, and of restoring her to her sound and pristine health *in an instant*.'

This assertion not only appears to be extravagant, but does not square with the admission in the 4th page, that many of the causes of the present evil do not admit of an immediate remedy.

The author denies, in opposition to the Duke of Portland's letter, that there is a real scarcity, and that the last harvest was deficient. Moy.

Art. 45. *Thoughts and Details on Scarcity*, originally presented to the Right Hon. William Pitt, in November, 1795. By the late Right Honourable Edmund Burke. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1800.

To many who may wish to see the opinions of the late Mr. Burke, on a subject which now so seriously occupies the thoughts of the community, this publication will probably be acceptable. It is composed from a memorial formerly presented to government, by this celebrated author; who here proceeds on the principle of Dr. Adam Smith, that all trade should be free; and who therefore does not recommend the particular interference of Government by compulsory acts and regulations: observing that, 'to provide for us in our necessities is not in the power of Government,' and that 'all compulsory equalizations pull down what is above, but never raise what is below.' So far was he from wishing to subject the farmer to peculiar restrictions, that he maintains that there cannot be a greater and more ruinous mistake, than so say that the trades of agriculture and grazing can be conducted on any other than the common principles of commerce. Enlightened statesmen are, we believe, generally of this opinion; and only particular and accidental pressures excite a different sentiment: in seasons of plenty and peace, who would advise Government to those measures of coercion for which some are now so strenuous?—Mr. Burke was averse from the scheme of public granaries, by which the Government becomes a buyer and seller of corn, and the people are fed out of the hands of the magistrates.

There are good sound principles in this pamphlet, mixed with some of Mr. Burke's peculiar assertions and sentiments. Do

Art. 46. *An Investigation of the Cause of the present High Price of Provisions*. By the Author of the Essay on the Principle of Population. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

The *Essay on Population*, by which the author gained some reputation, was noticed in our 27th vol. N S. p. 1. The present Investigation has the misfortune of endeavouring to account for a great and complicated evil chiefly from an individual cause. The writer supposes that the system of poor laws, and parish allowances, have operated principally in raising provisions to their present high prices; since by these means the power of purchasing was increased in the market beyond what it otherwise would have been. He has little hopes from legislative interference, and is of opinion that the abolition of the assize would be a benefit. Do

Art.

Art. 47. *Thoughts on Scarcity, and Remedies suggested.* By the Rev. James Matthews, M. A. Curate of Ford, Salop. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell jun. and Davies.

Some persons are shocked, but we are amused, by clashing opinions. While the author of the preceding Investigation questions whether any good will result from the interference of Parliament, Mr. Matthews begins his contribution of advice (of which apparently there is *no scarcity*) by assuring us that 'it is from Parliament *alone* we can hope for redress; and although it cannot "command the stones to be made bread," it is omnipotent enough to enact such regulations as will, under Divine Providence, prevent the return of similar visitations.' If, however, the present scarcity be a *visitation*, does not Mr. M., in this compliment, place Parliament *above*, instead of *under* Divine Providence? He differs from the preceding writer not only as to the ability of Parliament, but also as to the cause of the present distress; conceiving it to arise from the consolidation of small farms, which he asserts to be the greatest grievance, morally and politically considered, under which the country labours. The operation of this system is minutely detailed; and in some respects it may be an evil: but will it account for the difficulty of the present moment? Since the consolidation of farms, have not provisions been at a moderate price? May

Art. 48. *Inquiry into the Causes and Remedies of the late and present Scarcity and high Price of Provisions*, in a Letter to the Right Hon. Earl Spencer, K.G. &c. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

We have perused this Inquiry with considerable pleasure, since it contains an enlarged and dispassionate view of the interesting subject which it professes to discuss. The ingenious author, who is a disciple of Dr. Adam Smith, contends for a free and unrestrained trade in articles of provisions, as in other commodities; and he opposes those prejudices against middle men and forestallers, which some men, in elevated stations, have lately cherished. Government, he thinks, ought no farther to interfere in the market than to produce security and competition. He is of opinion that 'the want of a surplus essentially distinguishes this year from former years, and goes far towards explaining the continuation of the high prices, more especially when it is taken into account, that the present crop is *considerably* below an average one, and that the potatoes have greatly failed this year.' Of the latter part of this statement we have some doubt, but none of the former; yet we allow, in the fullest extent, the necessity of economy to carry us round the year.

The bad season being admitted as the principal occasion of dearness, the writer proceeds to mention some other subordinate causes; among which he introduces the increased consumption in consequence of the war, which he calculates at one-thirty-sixth part of the whole; and then, in order to prove that this weighs little in the scale, he asks, "What should we say to the master of a family who should allege, that he has wherewithal amply to maintain thirty-six persons, but that if a single one were added, it would be productive of the greatest distress to the whole?" As far as mere quantity is concerned, the question is easily answered: but the manner of obtaining it in large masses for armies and navies, by the agents for Government, has also

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an effect in raising the price. By the public, provisions are drawn out of the market in innumerable little channels: but Government at once opens a sluice.—The author recommends, as a remote remedy for the evil of scarcity, the bringing of waste lands into cultivation; taking it as a point demonstrated that our agriculture is not equal to our population; and for immediate resources, he advises importation—the abolition of the assize—taking steps to stop prosecutions against dealers in corn, and to quiet popular prejudices against them—enforcing the act of last session, respecting stale bread—and to stop the distilleries, and the making of starch and hair powder.

He concludes with protesting against the measure of a *maximum*. Mo. y.

Art. 49. *A Temperate Discussion of the Causes which have led to the present high Price of Bread.* Addressed to the Plain Sense of the People. 8vo. 1s. Wright.

Temper and good sense certainly discover themselves in this pamphlet; the author of which assumes, in a great measure, the principles laid down in the *Inquiry* just mentioned. He contends that the high price of wheat and bread is not the effect of monopoly and combination;—nor of the speculations of the farmer, the corn-dealer, or the miller;—nor the consequence of the war;—though these things may have had their weight in the scale. He observes that the late crop has been remarkably uneven; and that, (in addition to the circumstance of a harvest on the whole perhaps defective,) the failure of the turnip crops having left more land open for wheat, and the fineness of the sowing season having caused more wheat to be sown, (which for the present has somewhat interrupted the threshing of corn for market,) the dearness of the moment has thus been augmented. This cause, however, cannot be of long duration, and will tend to produce a more abundant harvest for the next year.—The quantity of seed corn, we are here informed, is estimated at not less than six or seven weeks consumption. Do

Art. 50. *Corn Trade. An Examination of certain Commercial Principles in their Application to Agriculture and the Corn Trade*, as laid down in the Fourth Book of Mr. (Dr.) Adam Smith's Treatise on the Wealth of Nations. With Proposals for Revival of the Statutes against Forestalling, &c. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

Dr. Adam Smith's *principles of free trade*, and his arguments in their support, are admitted by this examiner to be just and good, as they generally relate to articles of trade and commerce: but he contends that an exception ought to be made with respect to bread corn, and that the dealers in it ought to have the arm of regulation and control held over them. To his reasoning we have given our best attention: but it has been insufficient to make us converts to his doctrine. We are of opinion that the country would not be benefited by the legislative interference which he recommends. Evils of one kind will to a certain degree generate evils of another: but, in seasons of real scarcity, the very circumstance of *feeding* the market, which he objects to the jobber, is an advantage. Then the interest of the public is as much concerned in withholding from as in supplying the markets. Do

Art.

Art. 51. *Patriotic Competition against Self-interested Combination, recommended;* by a [an] Union between the Nobility, the Landed, and Independent Interest, the Clergy, and Consumer; with a View of reducing Commodities from their Money, or Market, Price, to their Real, or Labour, Price. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

The national debt and taxes, war, the abuse of the paper system, the manœuvres of trade, and an insufficient supply of grain, are here considered as the sources of our existing evils. The remedies suggested are of a two-fold nature: such as must flow from the legislature, and such as depend on the exertions of individuals. To the latter, the attention of the public is here more particularly directed. Noblemen, gentlemen, clergy, and persons in the higher classes of society, are exhorted to associate for the purpose of forming—*county* banks; to enable the county to purchase articles of provision by wholesale and by importation, with the view of retailing them to *consumers*, through the medium of public shops, &c. We may be excused from detailing the particulars of this plan; which, in our opinion, is too wild and indigested to attract much attention in the present distressed state of the kingdom.

Art. 52. *The Rights of the Poor considered;* with the Causes and Effects of Monopoly, and a Plan of Remedy by means of a popular progressive Excise. By George Brewer. 8vo. 2s. 6s. Debrett.

In reviewing the *scarcity pamphlets*, (which, regardless of the *scarcity of paper*, have issued in such abundance from the press,) we have been obliged to content ourselves with little more than taking a rapid glance at their contents, without diverging into separate discussion: but the publication now before us would almost tempt us to deviate from the practice which we have pursued, did not our time and limits forbid. On the state of the poor*, and on the impolicy of our legal system and general conduct respecting them, much might be said in addition to Mr. Brewer's just and humane observations. Our union of opinion, however, is but partial. We do not admire his reasoning against Dr. Adam Smith, nor his insinuation that 'the English corn-dealer may shake hands with the Dutch spice-merchant.' Declamations against monopoly, forestalling, engrossing, &c. may be well meant: but, being of an inflammatory nature, they are likely to produce more harm than good. We were surprized that Mr. B. after his condemnations of monopolists, should speak in favour of a particular monopoly †; and, with a total forgetfulness of the universal spirit of trade, attribute that to pure benevolence which must to a considerable extent have been prompted, as all trading combinations are, by motives of gain. As to his project of a system of excise extending to the farmer and corn dealer, with a regular board of commissioners and subordinate officers, we shall only observe that we are not yet converts to the plan.

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* The general solicitude seems to extend to making provisions for the poor, while we are inattentive to the more essential point of leading them to be provident for themselves.

† The London Flour Company.

Art.

Art. 53. *A short Enquiry into the Nature of Monopoly and Forestalling.* A Third Edition, with considerable Additions. By Edward Morris, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

A former edition of this well-written and able pamphlet was noticed by us in vol. 20. p. 115. N. S.; and considering the narrow views which still operate on the minds of sensible men respecting the corn-trade, its republication with additions is very seasonable. Mr. Morris is a *Smithian*, and well defends the principle (now combated by some) laid down by the author of "The Wealth of Nations", respecting the good policy of allowing the freedom of trade. He maintains that the interests of the corn-dealer and of the public are inseparable; and that advance of price is the best way of enforcing public œconomy. He denies that there can be a combination, to any serious extent, for raising the price of grain; and he is of opinion that the supply of the public is judiciously regulated by corn-dealers, and at the least expence. 'To reserve corn at one time, in order to distribute it at another; or to take corn from any one market, in order to convey it to another; occasions no national evil; the corn is equally consumed, though the mouths which consume it are not the same: so far from having any prejudicial effect, if the scarcity in the market to which it is conveyed be greater than in that from which it was taken, the public are greatly relieved. Our object ought to be, not that corn or any other article of provision should be plentiful at any particular time or any particular place, but that it should be found plentiful, if possible, but at all events in equal distribution, throughout the different periods of the year, and over every part of the kingdom.'

This is the true light in which the subject ought to be contemplated. To a supply from abroad, we must add judicious management at home.

PHILOSOPHY.

Art. 54. *Elements of the Chemical and Natural History of Mineral Substances.* By M. Brisson, Professor in the Central Schools of Paris; translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 149. 4s. Walker, &c.

We have taken notice of the original of this work in page 565 of our 28th vol. The translation appears on perusal to be very accurate, and to retain all the clearness and perspicuity which characterise this excellent elementary book. No superfluous notes have been added to it, but only a few simple explanations, where they were absolutely requisite. Works like this ought always to be given in their original shape; they cannot but lose some of their merit, if they are either abridged or extended.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 55. *On the Origin of Government, and the Excellence of the British Constitution*, preached at the Assizes holden for the County of Southampton, 5th March, 1800, before Sir Soulden Laurence, Knt. and Arthur Palmer, Esq. By Daniel Lancaster, A. B. Curate of South Stoneham. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

Submission to government justly appointed, and to righteous and reasonable laws, is the dictate of nature and religion; and this, we conceive, is that for which this writer pleads. He applauds the Revolution in 1688, deprecates Jacobinism, commends the present Administration, and very properly exhorts us to the 'conscientious discharge of the duties of our respective professions;' since, he observes, 'good laws without good morals will soon lose their influence; and the best government under a relaxation of manners is hastening to decay.'

The discourse is well written. Hi.

Art. 56. *The proper Improvement of Divine Chastening, recommended to National Attention.* Preached at Clapham, 12th March, 1800, by T. Urwick. 8vo. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies.

We think that this must be acknowleged to be a plain, serious, and useful discourse, whether the reader approves all the sentiments which it contains, or is inclined to dispute some of the author's remarks. Without at present entering into a particular discussion of any such points, we would join in recommending that repentance, reformation, and proper improvement of our great national calamities, which are calmly and affectionately urged by this respectable preacher. D.

Art. 57. *The Superiority of Religious Duties to Worldly Considerations.* Preached at the Unitarian Chapel in Essex-Street, London. April 20, 1800. By John Disney, D. D. F. A. S. 8vo. 6d. Johnson.

This discourse is pointed against a parent-vice of the present age, from which many others derive their being. When moral and religious principle is daily sacrificed for the mean considerations of vanity, pride, and worldly interest, it is the duty of the Christian preacher to expostulate with his fellow-creatures, on the extreme folly as well as wickedness of such a conduct. Dr. D. has performed this duty with seriousness, and has shewn the wisdom of making every sublunary object subservient to our obedience to the will of God. Ma

Art. 58. Preached in the Chapels of Princes-Street, Westminster, on February 16th, and Essex-Street, Strand, on February 23d, 1800, by Joshua Toulmin, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

An excellent Discourse, tending to correct a prevalent and mischievous mistake. The subject is, "The *Lord of hosts* is his name." Jer. xxxii. 18.—This title, so appropriate to Jehovah, is sometimes considered as meaning, 'the God of *armies* or of battles,' intimating 'that he favours these hosts with a peculiar care;' and 'thus men are led to conceive (says this writer) that in the title of the "Lord of hosts" there is a sanction to political hostility and blood-shed.'—It is by no means surprizing that Voltaire should have availed himself of this misapprehension, to point his arrows against Divine revelation: but it might have been expected that Christian ministers, instead of countenancing, would apply themselves to rectify the error.

Dr. Toulmin observes that 'the English word *Host* corresponds to three different words in the Hebrew; two of which appear to signify camps, or bodies of men equipped for the field, and disposed in military

tary order. The third word, which is used in the text, viz. Sabaoth *, and is the only term of the three connected with the name of God, and used as expressive of his character, seldom signifieth military bodies of men, and is of wide and extensive import:—it includes and chiefly intends the heavenly bodies; the sun, the moon, and the stars.'—This explication is supported by several just remarks; and Dr. T. hence draws the inference that this name of God has been greatly mistaken and abused, when it has been supposed to teach us to look up to him as the patron of *war*:—'it is consolation to reflect, that like other evils, this is under the controul of the supreme Lord of heaven and earth; and will be over-ruled, by his commanding influence, to do good: but it is not from his delight in it, nor his agency in it, that the Almighty derives his name, *The Lord of Hosts*. This title proceeds from his being the Creator and Sovereign of all things in heaven and earth.'

There was a peculiar propriety in the title on another account; as the God of the Jews, the only true God, formed all those bodies, the host of heaven, which the nations around adored and worshipped as their deities. Here the author finds an argument highly favourable to the divinity of the Old Testament; and he proceeds to observe; 'what a glorious and magnificent conception doth this subject lead us to form of the Great Jehovah.—They who interpret this title to signify "the God of battle," or the Lord of military force, will, on consideration perceive, that they give a low, and certainly very contracted idea of the first and greatest Being: not at all correspondent to the design, with which we see, the terms are used in the Scriptures. There, the name denotes a supreme creating power, a supreme all-commanding Providence.'

The sermon concludes with a direction to 'unite with the consideration of this glorious and awful name, the character under which the gospel particularly delights to represent the Divine Being, namely as the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ, and as our Father in heaven.' The candid and attentive reader will not be surprized that this sermon is published in consequence of earnest request. Hi.

Art. 59. Preached at the Parish-Church in Beverley, March 12, 1800, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By the Rev. Robert Rigby, Vicar. 8vo. 6d. Scatcherd.

This is one among the best discourses that we have perused on such an occasion: not that it is remarkable for flights of oratory, beauty of language, or depth of reasoning, (though it is by no means defective in these respects,) but on account of the plain, serious, and sensible manner in which it exposes vice, and urges reformation, as the most likely and effectual means of removing public calamities, and of restoring national peace and prosperity. The author, having been requested by several who heard the sermon, to furnish them with a copy of it, has been induced to make it public. 'General complaints,

* Should not this word be rather written *Tzabaoth*, to distinguish it from *Sabbath*, which to the mere English reader it may appear greatly to resemble?

(he remarks) of the infidelity and profligacy of the times, however just, are not calculated to produce conviction. Pointing out local disorders, which every man may endeavour to correct, seems more likely to do good.'

Hi.

'*To the* EDITOR *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

'SIR, Nov. 18, 1800.

'IN the review of my Translation of Schiller's Wallenstein (Rev. for October) I am numbered among the Partizans of the German Theatre. As I am confident that there is no passage in my Preface or Notes from which such an opition can be legitimately formed; and, as the truth would not have been exceeded, if the directly contrary had been affirmed, I claim it of your justice that in your answers to Correspondents you would remove this misrepresentation. The mere circumstance of translating a manuscript play is not even evidence that I admired that one play, much less that I am a general admirer of the plays in that language.

'I remain, Sir, with respect, &c.

'Your humble servant,

'Greta Hall, Keswick.' 'S. T. COLERIDGE.'

As Mr. Coleridge has thought it worth his while to transmit the above letter, we readily insert it: but we do not see that the matter to which it relates is of much importance. We used the words "partizan of the German theatre" solely with reference to the occasion on which they were written: but perhaps the expression was too comprehensive.

We are obliged to *a Columbian:* but, as we never wish to come in contact with a chimney-sweeper, we shall keep our distance from the object which he recommends to our notice.

Our Sunderland Correspondent's observations, respecting Mr. Godwin's *St. Leon*, (see Rev. Sept. last,) were probably penned as he says "*currente curru.*" Had he been in his library, he would have seen that Swift's *Struldbrug* could not have been the prototype of St. Leon; since, though the Luggnaggian immortals are represented as disgusting objects, Mr. Godwin's hero does not appear in that light; nor do his miseries arise from the weakness and debility of age. E.M. however, might have approached the truth, if he had intimated that the supposed notions of Gulliver, respecting the great advantages to be derived from sublunary immortality, might have furnished Mr. Godwin with some thoughts in his Romance.

H

Mo.y

A letter relative to Bossuet's Sermons, mentioned in this Number, was received too late for compliance with the request contained in it.

H. E. of Oxford has misconstrued our silence. His former letter is yet under consideration.

☞ In the Review for October, p. 211. l. 7. from bott. for 'seriously weigh well,' r. *seriously to weigh.*

P. 242. l. 12. for 'important,' r. trivial.